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An analysis on self talk and self-confidence with female tennis players

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AN ANALYSIS ON SELF TALK AND
SELF-CONFIDENCE WITH FEMALE
TENNIS PLAYERS

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Human Performance
San Jose State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

by

Hilary Gail Stokes

August 1998

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Dr. David Furst

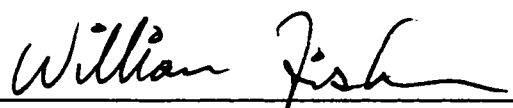


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ABSTRACT

AN ANALYSIS ON SELF TALK AND SELF-CONFIDENCE WITH FEMALE TENNIS PLAYERS

by Hilary G. Stokes

This thesis analyzes self talk and self-confidence with female tennis players. Qualitative methods were utilized for data analysis. Participants were three female tennis players from a west coast university. Interventions such as, self talk, progressive muscular relaxation, and diaphragmatic breathing were taught to participants during a 20 minute interview. A reflective journal following a structured format was employed. Participants were instructed to record entries for each practice/match for a period of 1 month. The results indicated that participants' self-confidence and performance increased over the course of the intervention period. This study adds to the body of literature on self talk, self-confidence, women in sport, and qualitative data analysis.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Self-confidence has been researched extensively in sport and has been found to be a critical mediating factor in sport performance outcomes (Bandura, 1990; Martin & Gill, 1991; Vealey, 1986). Psychological interventions, such as self talk, have been used by coaches, athletes, and sport psychologists to improve self-confidence in sport (Keating & Hogg, 1995). Moreover, the majority of self talk research in sport, has focused on the effect on performance outcomes versus self-confidence (Gould, Hodge, Peterson, & Giannini, 1989; Keating & Hogg, 1995; Van Raalte, Brewer, Lewis, Linder, & Wildman, 1992; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990). Thus, the effects of self talk on self-confidence in sport have been noted as an area that would benefit from future research (Gould et al., 1989; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990).

Women have been receiving more attention in sport, although the field of sport remains a predominantly patriarchal domain (Borish, 1996; Hall, 1985; Lamprecht & Stamm, 1996; Tomlinson & Yorgnaci, 1997; Vertinsky, 1994; Weiller & Higgs, 1994; Welky, 1997). Consequently, the majority of theories and constructs are based on male normative data. Gender differences have, however, been identified in sport in the areas of anxiety, stress, concentration, self-confidence, motivation, and attribution (Edwards, 1995; Feltz, 1988; Kerr & Vlaminkx, 1997; Lirgg, George, Chase, & Ferguson, 1996; Meyers, LeUnes & Bourgeois, 1996; Vealey, 1986). Thus, applying theories based on male standards to women in sport may not accurately reflect women's experiences and maintains the patriarchal norm (Lirgg et al., 1996). Research focusing on the experiences of women in sport has been noted by researchers as important to the further advancement of women in sport (Lirgg, 1992; McDermott, 1996; Messner, 1988).

Researchers have also suggested that qualitative studies enrich and enhance the body of literature in sport psychology as they reflect the athletes' experiences from their

perspective, thus, future focus in this area is proposed (Hanson & Newburg, 1992; Krane, Andersen, & Streat, 1997; Scanlan, Ravizza, & Stein, 1989). However, the majority of research in sport psychology, to date, is based on quantitative analysis rather than qualitative analysis (Hanson & Newburg, 1992). Self-confidence, self-efficacy, self talk, women in sport, gender differences, and qualitative analysis will be covered in the following sections.

Self-confidence

Self-confidence plays a key role in sport performance (Martin & Gill, 1991; Vealey, 1986; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990). George (1994) noted self-confidence as one of the most frequently cited psychological factors to affect athletic performance, and also called it the most critical cognitive factor in sport. Further, higher levels of self-confidence have been related to better performance outcomes, whereas lower levels of self-confidence have been related to less successful performance outcomes (George, 1994; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990).

Vealey (1986) developed a conceptual model of self-confidence specific to sport. According to Vealey, "Sport confidence is defined as the belief or degree of certainty individuals possess about their ability to be successful in sport" (p. 222). Self-confidence is divided into two parts: state sport self-confidence and trait sport self-confidence. Individual competitive orientation is also a factor in Vealey's model. Individual competitive orientation "reflects an athlete's belief that attainment of a certain type of goal demonstrates competence and success" (p. 222). Martin and Gill (1991) tested Vealey's conceptual model investigating the relationship of trait sport self-confidence and competitive orientation to state self-confidence and its relationship to performance. It was found that an individual's enduring level of sport confidence or trait sport confidence was a significant predictor of his/her more transitory level of sport confidence or state sport confidence. Thus, this study confirms Vealey's findings and supports her conceptual model of self-

confidence as her model proposes that trait sport confidence and competitive orientation interact with the objective sport situation to predict state sport confidence.

The existing literature on self-confidence in sport requires further analysis in order to overcome limitations within the research such as; using only closed skills, low external validity, using inexperienced subjects and using controlled settings (George, 1994; Vealey, 1986; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990). Researchers have specifically identified the need to use paradigms developed for sport in the dynamic sport setting with experienced athletes practicing open skills (Feltz, 1988; George, 1994; Vealey, 1986; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990).

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy has been studied by various researchers such as Bandura (1977, 1990), Eccles and Harold (1991), Feltz (1982), Feltz, Landers, and Raeder (1979), and Feltz and Mugno (1983). The focus has been predominantly on Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory which was developed from social cognitive theory for individuals experiencing phobias (George, 1994; Lirrg, 1992; McAuley & Gill, 1983; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990). Self-efficacy theory assumes that when an individual is capable of executing the task and incentives are present, self-efficacy will predict performance (Lirrg, 1992; McAuley & Gill, 1983; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990). According to George, and McAuley and Gill, Bandura's definition of self-efficacy encompasses a situation specific form of self-confidence in which individuals believe they can do whatever needs to be done in a specific situation.

Feltz et al. (1979) conducted a study examining the effectiveness of participant, live, and videotaped modeling on a novel springboard diving task. Modeling and the strength of self-efficacy were also measured. Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory was used as the basis for the study. In support of Bandura's self-efficacy theory, the

participant modeling group performed more successful dives and higher levels of self-efficacy than the live and videotape modeling groups.

Feltz (1982) further tested Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory in the approach avoidance behavior of 80 female college students performing a modified back dive. A reciprocal relationship between back diving performance and self-efficacy was predicted to occur according to Bandura's model. Self-efficacy was also predicted to be the mediator of back diving performance. Self-efficacy alone was not found to significantly predict back diving performance, and an equal cause and effect relationship between self-efficacy and back diving performance was not found. As a result of these findings, Feltz developed a respecified model which encompassed both self-efficacy and past performance as direct influences of succeeding performance. Significant results were found with the respecified model. Self-efficacy was found to significantly predict performance. A significant reciprocal relationship between self-efficacy and back diving performance was also found. Overall support for Bandura's self-efficacy theory was provided in the study.

George (1994) conducted a field study in sport to test Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory. The study notes the limitations of past research in this area, specifically, inexperienced subjects, controlled settings, and the use of predominantly closed skills. In an attempt to overcome these limitations, experienced subjects were tested in a field setting over a 3 week period of time. Self-efficacy was found to be a significant predictor of hitting performance and overall supported Bandura's self-efficacy theory. In summary, equivocal results have been found in determining self-efficacy alone as a mediating factor in performance outcomes. Thus, further research is needed in this area to establish a strong empirical base on the effects of self-efficacy.

Self Talk

The use of self talk as a cognitive intervention was developed in psychology and has been used most often in treating depression and anxiety (Ingram, 1989; Kendall,

Howard, & Hays, 1989; Nutt-Williams & Hill, 1996). Researchers have demonstrated that cognitive strategies such as self talk involve training individuals to alter negative thoughts/self talk in order to produce constructive emotions and behaviors (Ingram, 1989; Kendall et al., 1989; Solley & Payne, 1990). Positive self talk has also been an effective technique used with children. Solley and Payne identified positive self talk as an effective tool to facilitate improvement in children's writing and attitudes. Additionally, they noted that cognitive strategies such as positive self talk, aimed at altering an individual's negative thoughts into positive thoughts, change behavior and increase performance. Self talk has been found to be a successful intervention in decreasing depression, anxiety, and improving children's writing (Kendall et al., 1989; Solley & Payne, 1990).

In sport, cognitive interventions have been utilized to enhance self-confidence (Keating & Hogg, 1995). Positive self talk has been used in sport as a cognitive intervention to enhance sport performance (Gould et al., 1989; Keating & Hogg, 1995; Van Raalte et al., 1992; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990). Moreover, positive self talk has been found to lead to better performance outcomes over negative self talk (Van Raalte et al., 1992; Van Raalte, Brewer, Rivera, & Petitpas, 1994; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990).

Gould et al. (1989), Kirkby (1991), and Weinberg and Jackson (1990) found positive self talk to be the most effective and most frequently used psychological technique by athletes and coaches. Moreover, Weinberg and Jackson as well as Gould et al. found imagery and peer modeling to be rated least effective and used most infrequently by coaches and athletes. It has been suggested that positive self talk increases self-confidence however, the two have not been directly studied (Keating & Hogg, 1995; Lirrg, 1992; Van Raalte et al., 1992; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990).

Van Raalte et al. (1992) replicated the only published study on the effects of positive and negative self talk on sport performance. The study by Van Raalte et al. tested the dart throwing performance of subjects in both negative and positive self talk conditions.

Subjects in the positive self talk condition performed significantly better than subjects in the negative self talk condition. Positive self talk was also found to significantly increase sport performance outcomes.

Positive self talk and self-confidence are both grounded in an individual's beliefs, convictions, and/or judgments about themselves and their abilities (Ingram, 1989; Solley & Payne, 1990; Williams & Hill, 1996). Therefore, it can be hypothesized, in sport, that changing an individual's negative self talk into positive self talk will increase self-confidence.

Women in Sport

The inclusion and participation of women in sport has been a disputed and debated issue (Borish, 1996; Hall, 1985; Messner, 1988). As well, the patriarchal nature of sport has historically not been inclusive of women (Borish, 1996; Hall, 1985; Lamprecht & Stamm, 1996; Tomlinson & Yorgnaci, 1997; Vertinsky, 1994; Weiller & Higgs, 1994; Welky, 1997). Sport has been reported to provide an arena for women to experience and advocate for social status and equality. Unfortunately, male dominance in the sport environment has negatively affected women's opportunities to experience the benefits of equality and social status which are positive outcomes of sport (Blinde, Taub, & Han, 1994; Messner, 1988). Furthermore, the majority of research in sport utilizes males as the norm, and thus can neither be adequately applied to nor be representative of the female population (Fairchild, 1994; Lorber & Farrell, 1991; McDermott, 1996).

Vertinsky (1994) analyzed women's history in sport from 1983 to 1993. She noted that women continue to be treated as second to males and virtually invisible as athletes, due to the patriarchal nature of society and sport. She suggested that research focusing on women is necessary for women to become an inclusive and equal part of sport.

Tomlinson and Yorgnaci (1997) wrote an article in which the relationship between female athletes and male coach relations was discussed. Control and domination by males

within sport are noted as an issue for women in sport. Patriarchy within sport is identified as the main reason that females continue to experience oppression and objectification in sport.

The implementation of Title IX legislation will continue to extend and expand the potential for women to have equality in sport (Blinde, 1986; Messner, 1988).

Furthermore, theories and paradigms that are constructed for and by women will enable women to develop a strong representation of the female sport experience (Borish, 1996; Fairchild, 1994; Halbert, 1997; Lorber & Farrell, 1991; McDermott, 1996; Vertinsky, 1994). Changing negative stereotypes and achieving equality in sport requires women to maintain a consistent and strong presence in sport (Fairchild, 1994; Halbert, 1997; Hall, 1985; Tomlinson & Yorgnaci, 1997).

Gender Differences in Sport

Significant gender differences in sport have been found by various researchers. The areas of self-confidence (Lirgg, George, Chase, & Ferguson, 1996; Meyers, LeUnes, & Bourgeois, 1996), anxiety (Feltz, 1988; Meyers et al., 1996), stress (Kerr & Vlaminkx, 1997; Madden & Kirkby, 1995), affect (Edwards, 1995), motivation (Meyers et al., 1996), attribution (Hendy & Boyer, 1993), and concentration (Meyers et al., 1996), have demonstrated gender differences. Feltz (1988) suggests that in order to develop strong theoretical principles on gender differences in sport, further research is needed.

Feltz (1988) investigated gender differences based on her (Feltz, 1982) respecification model of Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory. Gender differences were assessed in the areas of self-efficacy, anxiety, autonomic perception, heart rate, past performance accomplishments, and performance behavior. Differences based on gender were not found for self-efficacy, heart rate, past performance accomplishments, and performance behavior, although, significantly higher levels of state anxiety and perceived

autonomic arousal were found for females versus males. Future research focusing on gender differences in sport was suggested.

Differences in the psychology of males and females have been demonstrated in the current research on gender differences (Edwards, 1995; Kerr & Vlaminkx, 1997; Lirgg et al., 1996; Madden & Kirkby, 1995; Meyers et al., 1996; Vealey, 1986). Higher levels of self-confidence, concentration, motivation, and lower levels of stress, and anxiety have been found for males in sport. Moreover, factors such as biology and culture have been identified as contributing to gender differences. Developing a strong theoretical framework of gender differences will require future research (Feltz, 1988).

Qualitative Analysis

Qualitative analysis yields detailed and rich data as it allows subjects to share their experiences from their perspective. Thus, the aim of qualitative analysis is to understand the subject from his/her viewpoint; the subject is viewed as the expert on data interpretations versus the researcher (Hanson & Newburg, 1992; Scanlan et al., 1989). Hanson and Newburg (1992) reported that the majority of research conducted thus far in sport psychology has utilized quantitative versus qualitative methods of analysis. Moreover, they advocate for implementing qualitative methods into sport psychology research. Furthermore, there are a variety of acceptable methods for conducting qualitative analysis, such as hermeneutics, grounded theory approach, ethnography, and naturalistic inquiry (Hanson & Newburg, 1992; Krane et al., 1997).

According to Hanson and Newburg (1992), naturalistic inquiry is a "discovery oriented" approach in which the goal is to understand events as they occur in their natural states. As applied to sport psychology, the athlete is studied in his/her sport setting from his/her perspective. Additionally, naturalistic inquiry is grounded in basic beliefs or axioms that support the theoretical constructs. Based on these axioms, the naturalist attempts to establish his/her study as trustworthy or worthy of the reader's attention. The

current study used naturalistic inquiry for establishing procedures, data collection, and data analysis. For the purpose of this study, principles of naturalistic inquiry were employed by using, interviews and journal writing for gathering information on self talk and self-confidence, as related to performance in the sport of tennis.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to conduct an analysis on positive self talk and self-confidence with experienced female tennis players.

Limitations

The study was limited in the following areas:

1. The participants' ability to accurately reflect their experiences and feelings in the context of specific questions.
2. The participant's ability to accurately express their reflections in writing.

Delimitations

The study was delimited to:

1. A sample size of three participants.
2. The use of female subjects only.
3. The nature of tennis as a single sport analysis.
4. Only 1 month duration of data collection.

Definition of Terms

1. Self-efficacy has been defined as "the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes" (Bandura, 1977, p. 193).
2. Sport self-confidence has been defined according to Vealey (1986) as "the belief or degree of certainty individuals possess about their ability to be successful in sport" (Vealey, 1986, p. 222). Self-confidence is divided into two parts: trait and state self-confidence.

3. "Trait sport self-confidence is defined as the belief or degree of certainty individuals usually possess about their ability to be successful in sport" (Vealey, 1986, p. 222).
4. "State sport self-confidence is defined as the belief or degree of certainty individuals usually possess at one particular moment about their ability to be successful in sport" (Vealey, 1986, p. 222).
5. Self talk refers to an individual's internal dialogue or what he/she is saying to him/herself. Self talk can be either positive or negative (Seaward, 1994, p. 146; Isaacs & Ritchey, 1989, pp. 2-6).
6. Positive self talk has been identified as positive statements an individual says to him/herself (Isaacs & Ritchey, 1989, pp. 2-6).
7. Negative self talk refers to the negative statements an individual says to him/herself (Isaacs & Ritchey, 1989, pp. 2-6).
8. Countering is a positive self talk intervention in which positive self talk is identified by changing negative self talk into positive self talk.
9. Diaphragmatic breathing has been characterized as controlled deep breathing concentrating on the lower stomach or diaphragm rather than the thoracic area (Seaward, 1994, pp. 260, 396).
10. Progressive muscular relaxation has been identified as a relaxation technique which involves tightening then relaxing the muscle groups within the body uniformly to decrease muscle tension (Seaward, 1994, p. 397).

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Self-confidence has been identified in sport research as an essential factor in successful performance outcomes (Bandura, 1977; Martin & Gill, 1991; Vealey, 1986). The majority of research to date on self-confidence in sport utilizes Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory. Furthermore, increasing self-confidence in sport has been achieved predominantly by employing cognitive interventions (Keating & Hogg, 1995). Positive self talk is a cognitive intervention that has been reported to be the most effective and frequently used intervention by coaches and athletes (Gould et al., 1989; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990).

The history of sport, to date, has predominantly been the history of men in sport (Vertinsky, 1994). Although women have been receiving increasing attention over the past decade, inequalities and discrimination against women continue to persist as males maintain the power structure (Borish, 1996; Lamprecht & Stamm, 1996; Vertinsky, 1994). Minimal research exists focusing solely on females in sport while gender differences have been noted in the various areas such as self-confidence, anxiety, and stress (Borish, 1996; Feltz, 1988; Kerr & Vlaminkx, 1997; Lirgg et al. 1996; Madden & Kirkby, 1995; McDermott, 1996; Meyers et al., 1996; Vertinsky, 1994). Therefore, research centering on women in sport is recognized as valuable. Qualitative analysis has been identified as underrepresented in the sport psychology literature, and future research is suggested in this area (Hanson & Newburg, 1992). The following subject areas will be covered in the subsequent sections: self-efficacy, self-confidence, self talk, women in sport, gender differences, and qualitative analysis.

Self-efficacy

Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory has been used predominantly in sport to study self-efficacy and self-confidence. Self-efficacy theory was developed from social

cognitive theory to assist individuals with phobias to change threatening behaviors (Bandura, 1977). Albert Bandura (1990) presented an article at the Fourth Annual Conference of the Association for the Advancement of Applied Sport Psychology titled "Perceived Self-efficacy in the Exercise of Personal Agency." The article analyzed the causal functions of self-efficacy beliefs and the resulting psychological processes. According to Bandura (1990) the single most central and pervasive motivation for people's actions is his/her beliefs about his/her ability to have control over the effects of his/her actions. Moreover, he notes that higher levels of perceived self-efficacy are associated with higher levels of performance. Self-efficacy, as a factor in thought control, is identified as a key determinant of athletic performance. To expand, Bandura (1990) states an athlete's ability to control negative thinking and ignore distractions is vital to athletic performance. It is further noted that developing self-efficacy in athletes is primarily contingent on the skills of the coaches.

According to Bandura (1977, 1990), four processes are cited as activating and influencing self-efficacy beliefs. These processes are (a) cognitive (self-beliefs of self-efficacy), (b) motivation (causal attributions, outcome expectancies, and cognized goals), (c) affective (self-efficacy affects degree of stress and depression experienced in threatening/pressure situations), and (d) selection processes (environments/activities). Additionally, an individual's perception of his/her ability is based on four sources of information: (a) performance accomplishments such as wins or losses, (b) vicarious experiences such as modeling, (c) verbal persuasion such as criticism or feedback, and (d) emotional arousal such as anxiety (Bandura, 1990; George, 1994; Gould et al., 1989). Self-efficacy is thought to be a common cognitive mechanism that mediates between these sources of information and performance (George, 1994).

Feltz (1979) performed a study to test the effectiveness of participant, live and videotape modeling on the strength of self-efficacy. The competence of participant, live,

and videotape modeling on the performance of a high-avoidance diving task was also tested. Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory was used as the basis for the study.

According to Bandura's theory, the participant-modeling group was predicted to have more successful performance outcomes and stronger self-efficacy expectations than the live or videotape modeling groups. Subjects were 60 female college students performing a novel, high-avoidance diving task. Subjects completed the Diving Efficacy Scale (DES) before and after completing four trials of the diving task. A total of eight trials were completed for the diving task. The DES was developed by the investigators and measured the strength of self-efficacy on the diving task. A trained judge rated the performance as correct or incorrect.

Results provided support for Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory in a controlled physical education setting. The participant modeling group performed more successful dives than the live and videotape modeling groups. As well, self-efficacy expectations were stronger for the participant modeling group than the other groups. The researcher notes that minimal and controversial research exists utilizing Bandura's theory based on the lack of empirical evidence. Consequently, future research in this area is suggested.

Feltz (1982) assessed Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory and an anxiety-based model. The approach/avoidance behavior of 80 female college students performing a modified back dive was studied. According to Bandura's model, a reciprocal relationship between self-efficacy and back diving performance was predicted to exist. As well, self-efficacy was predicted to be the mediator of back diving performance. It was hypothesized that self-efficacy would be an effect of performance rather than a cause. Four performance trials were conducted on a novel, high-avoidance diving task. Self-report measures were used to assess anxiety on the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, a diving efficacy scale, and a background questionnaire. Trained observers measured performance on a performance rating scale which was derived from a pilot study. Subjects' physiological arousal was

measured by electrodes to indicate heart rate. Path analytic techniques were used to determine the results.

Initial results indicated nonsignificant findings for self-efficacy as the only predictor of back diving performance. However, self-efficacy, past performances, and immediate previous performance were found to significantly predict performance. As well, even though a reciprocal relationship between self-efficacy and performance was found, it was not an equal reciprocal relationship. An alternative model was proposed as a result of the initial results. The alternative model included both self-efficacy and performance accomplishments as direct influences of successive performance. Results from the alternative model supported Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory. Self-efficacy was found to significantly predict performance and to be a stronger predictor than past performance or heart rate. A significant reciprocal cause/effect relationship between self-efficacy and performance over four trials was also found. The findings for the respecified model offer support for Bandura's model of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy, however, was not measured directly in this model, and thus, it is suggested that future studies focusing directly on the effects of self-efficacy would provide further support for Bandura's model.

Feltz (1988) executed a study replicating the predictions of her (Feltz, 1982) respecification model of Bandura's self-efficacy theory. The respecified model proposed that past related experience, self-efficacy, and heart rate would predict initial performance, and that past performance and self-efficacy would predict successive performances. Self-efficacy is also proposed to be the mediating factor between autonomic perceptions of arousal on performance. Subjects were 40 male and 40 female college students performing a novel, high-avoidance diving task. Subjects completed two trials of the diving task. Approach/avoidance behaviors of subjects were measured. Heart rate was measured by using telemetry. Self report measures were used from the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, the Autonomic Perception Questionnaire, a diving self-efficacy scale, and a background

questionnaire. Two trained observers measured performance based on the performance rating scale.

Results indicated general support for Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory. Self-efficacy was found to significantly predict initial performance for females. However, self-efficacy, past related experience, and heart rate were not found to significantly predict initial diving performance for males. A reciprocal relationship was found between self-efficacy and performance for females but not for males. Self-efficacy and past performance were also strong predictors of successive performance for both males and females. Gender differences were found in this study and are noted in the gender differences section of this paper. Future research focusing on natural occurring, diverse sport situations was suggested. Testing subjects over an extended period of time was noted as important in future sport research.

George (1994) conducted a study to test Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory. Perceptions of self-efficacy, effort expenditure, competitive state anxiety, and objective hitting performance were examined with baseball players. A field study with 53 male intercollegiate baseball players was performed in which subjects completed self-efficacy, anxiety, and effort questionnaires on 9 successive game days. Self-efficacy was found to be a significant predictor of performance in support of Bandura's theory. However, past performance was not found to predict future performance. Additionally, only moderate support was found relating self-efficacy to one's effort expenditure. This study also provided external validity for Bandura's self-efficacy theory. George contended that despite universal acceptance of Bandura's self-efficacy theory in controlled sport performance settings, there is limited knowledge and empirical research about the effects of Bandura's theory in natural sport settings. George notes self-confidence as the most frequently cited psychological factor thought to affect athletes' performances, and it has been identified as the single most vital cognitive factor in sport. Additionally, it is noted

that one of the most consistent findings in research is that successful elite athletes report higher levels of self-confidence than do less successful elite athletes (George, 1994). Self-confidence is defined as a more global trait, whereas self-efficacy is defined as a situation-specific form of self-confidence. George identified limitations in research with the use of Bandura's self-efficacy theory. These limitations are the predominant use of artificial sport settings, controlled environments, the use of nonathletes or inexperienced athletes, and the use of mostly closed skills versus open skills. This study attempted to overcome these limitations by using an actual sport setting over a period of time with experienced athletes.

Self-confidence

Vealey (1986) performed a study based on her conceptual model of sport self-confidence, assessing the reliability and validity of the Trait and State Sport Self-confidence Inventory (TSCI & SSCI) as well as the Competitive Orientation Inventory (COI). The purpose of her study was to establish the reliability and validity of the State and Trait Sport Self-confidence Inventories as well as the Competitive Orientation Inventory, and to provide a theoretical model of sport self-confidence.

The Competitive Orientation Inventory (1986) was developed on the basis that individual perception of success was identified in the literature as a key component in assessing self-confidence. The inventories were developed based on personality research, Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory, and prior research. According to the conceptual model developed by Vealey, trait sport confidence and competitive orientation interact with the objective sport situation to produce state sport confidence. Thus, an individual's predisposition or typical belief about his/her ability combined with whether he/she is performance, or outcome-oriented, will determine his/her self-confidence in a given sport situation. The study consisted of five phases in which 666 subjects were tested to assess internal validity, external validity, concurrent validity, construct validity, and test/retest reliability. Total item correlation coefficients were greater than .50, and internal

consistency coefficients were .93 for TSCI and .95 for SSCI, indicating adequate item discrimination and internal consistency. Descriptive statistics for the COI revealed all cells greater than 1.0, indicating sufficient variability between and within cells. Reliability coefficients for the TSCI and COI indicated adequate reliability (TSCI $r=.89$, COI $r=.69$). Significant relationships between the TSCI, SSCI, and COI were determined based on Pearson correlation analysis demonstrating construct validity (Vealey, 1986).

Martin and Gill (1991) examined the relationships between competitive orientation, sport confidence, self-efficacy, anxiety, and performance. It was hypothesized that trait sport confidence would predict state sport confidence and outcome self-efficacy. Vealey's (1986) conceptual model of sport self-confidence was the basis for this study. Thus, trait and state sport confidence, as well as competitive orientation, were measured. Performing well and winning were the two categories used to identify an individual's competitive orientation. Self-efficacy is noted as a specific form of state sport confidence. Moreover, Vealey's TSCI and SSCI, as well as COI, were utilized. Subjects were 73 male long-distance runners from local high school track teams. Through descriptive statistics, it was found that trait sport confidence predicted state sport confidence and outcome self-efficacy. As well, state sport confidence and self-efficacy predicted performance. Competitive orientation, however, did not predict state sport confidence. Results predominantly supported Vealey's conceptual model of sport confidence.

In sport, self-confidence has been viewed as an important aspect in achieving performance outcomes (Martin & Gill, 1991; Vealey, 1986; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990). Self-confidence has been identified as a significant cognitive factor in sport (George, 1994). Traditionally, in sport psychology, Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory has been utilized to assess self-confidence in sport settings. Other research has included Vealey's (1986) conceptual model of sport self-confidence, however, there is limited empirical research using this model. According to George (1994), current research on self-

confidence in sport has several limitations. He noted that methodological weaknesses found in existing literature focus on the use of closed skills (Feltz, 1979), the use of inexperienced subjects and nonathletes (Feltz, 1982), and low external validity (Barling & Abel, 1983). Future research utilizing theories developed for sport and focusing on self-confidence versus self-efficacy are suggested by researchers (George, 1994; Vealey, 1986).

Self Talk

Predominantly cognitive strategies have been used in sport to increase self-confidence such as, thought stopping and cognitive restructuring (Keating & Hogg, 1995). Positive self talk is a cognitive technique that has been used to increase sport performance. Thus, positive self talk has been found to enhance performance outcomes and negative self talk has been found to decrease performance outcomes (Keating & Hogg, 1995; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990). Moreover, positive self talk has been suggested to lead to increases in self-confidence, although the two have not been directly studied. Relaxation techniques such as progressive muscular relaxation and diaphragmatic breathing have also been used in conjunction with positive self talk (Finn, 1985; Keating & Hogg, 1995; Kendall, Hrycaiko, Martin, & Kendall, 1990; Kirkby, 1991; Meyers & Schleser, 1980). Combining these interventions signifies the relationship between the mind and the body and supports a holistic perspective of embodiment.

Meyers and Schleser (1980) analyzed the effectiveness of cognitive-coping strategies on the performance of a college basketball player. The use of cognitive-coping strategies was identified to differentiate more successful competitors from less successful competitors. The study utilized progressive muscular relaxation, imagery, thought stopping, and self-instruction. Thought stopping was used to stop negative self talk, and self-instruction was used to re-focus the players' attention on relevant tasks. Significant increases were found in the players' points scored per game, shooting percentage, and

percentage of total team scoring. This study supported the use of cognitive-coping strategies, progressive muscular relaxation, imagery, thought stopping, and self-instruction in a sport setting.

Finn (1985) wrote an article discussing the importance of mental training and integrating the mind and body to achieve optimal competitive performance. Self talk, progressive muscular relaxation, and diaphragmatic breathing were the top mental training techniques identified. Positive self talk and relaxation techniques, used in combination, were noted to allow athletes to control their stress response and focus their attention on relevant cues. The article discusses step-by-step applications of using self talk, diaphragmatic breathing, and progressive muscular relaxation techniques. The article emphasizes the importance of using and practicing mental training techniques to improve competitive performance.

Gould et al. (1989) assessed the frequency and the degree of effectiveness of strategies used by elite coaches to increase self-efficacy in athletes. Subjects surveyed were 101 intercollegiate wrestling coaches. Frequency and effectiveness ratings indicated that coaches rated highest, (a) instruction drilling, (b) modeling confidence, (c) positive self talk, and (d) employing hard physical conditioning drills. Discriminant function analysis revealed few between coach differences. It is noted that no empirical investigations have been conducted to assess positive self talk as an effective self-efficacy enhancing strategy. It is further suggested that empirical research on the effects of positive self talk on self-efficacy is needed by sport psychologists.

Weinberg and Jackson (1990) replicated the previous study by Gould et al. (1989), focusing on the coach's viewpoint of players' self-efficacy and performance. The purpose of the study was to estimate the frequency that high school and age group tennis coaches utilize self-efficacy enhancing strategies and their assessment of those strategies. Self-efficacy and self-confidence were used somewhat synonymously throughout the study.

Mail surveys were attained from 222 high school and age group tennis coaches from the southwest United States. The average coach had 12 years of experience and had won over half his/her matches in their last competitive season. The questionnaire was based on a five- point Likert-type scale designed to assess confidence-building strategies. Frequency and effectiveness ratings on descriptive statistics indicated that all of the strategies were used by coaches, and they most frequently used positive self talk, modeling, verbal persuasion, rewarding statements, and instruction drilling. Discriminant function analysis determined that there were few between coach differences. Specifically, the coaches differed on only two of the seven discriminating variables.

The effective use of self-efficacy enhancing strategies was thought to affect and improve performance. Interestingly, the techniques most widely utilized by sport psychologists to enhance self-confidence were noted as (a) mental imagery, (b) peer modeling, and (c) relaxation techniques while coaches reported using (a) positive self talk, (b) modeling confidence, (c) instruction-drilling, (d) liberally rewarding statements, and (e) verbal persuasion. This difference may be due to the limited knowledge and/or training coaches have in using these techniques. Future research is needed in this area to develop cohesive techniques and to determine the most effective techniques (Weinberg & Jackson, 1990).

Kendall et al. (1990) studied the effects of a self talk, imagery rehearsal, and relaxation package on the performance of four female basketball players. Subjects were taught the intervention techniques in individual interviews over a 5-day period, and were instructed to use them in combination with each other. Subjects maintained a weekly logbook recording their experiences and rating of their mental training program from the onset to the completion of the basketball season. Increases in basketball performance were found over the intervention period, based on analysis of logbooks and player game

performance. The study found overall support for the use of self talk, imagery rehearsal, and relaxation techniques.

Kirkby (1991) conducted a study measuring the use of sport psychology techniques and their effect on the performance of 22 professional football players. Self talk, relaxation techniques, and cognitive rehearsal were the techniques selected and taught in the beginning of the football season. Players were mailed surveys one week after their championship match which assessed the use of the techniques and the effect on performance. Eighty two percent of the players reported using the techniques and found the techniques increased their performance. Self talk and cognitive rehearsal were reported to be used more frequently than relaxation strategies. Overall, this study supports the use of self talk, cognitive rehearsal, and relaxation techniques to increase performance in competitive sport.

Van Raalte et al. (1992) performed an experimental study to test the effects of positive and negative self talk on performance. Existing literature demonstrated equivocal findings with the effects of positive and negative self talk on performance, however, limited experimental research had been conducted. This study replicated the only existing experimental study testing the effects of positive and negative self talk on performance. According to Van Raalte et al., the previous study found positive self talk to increase performance outcomes, and negative self talk to decrease performance outcomes. Van Raalte et. al. found that positive self talk significantly increased performance outcomes and negative self talk decreased performance outcomes.

Van Raalte et al. (1994) examined the effects of self talk on performance. The authors note techniques such as countering, thought stopping, and cognitive restructuring were utilized to reduce the occurrence of negative self talk and increase the occurrence of positive self talk. Countering is identified as a technique in which negative self-statements are countered with positive self-statements. Examples of countering are, "I'm horrible or I am no good" to "I've got what it takes," or "I'm really nervous, I'm not sure about this" to

"I'm ready," or "God, Move your feet" to "Feet" and "Oh, I can't believe I just did that" to "Relax," or "Focus" (Van Raalte et al., 1992; Van Raalte et al., 1994). Prior research has identified categories of positive self talk such as, (a) motivational, (b) instructional, (c) strategic, and (d) affirmational (Solley & Payne, 1990; Van Raalte et al., 1994). As well, the authors note that prior self-report research on the effects of self talk on sport performance has yielded similar findings. Conversely, experimental research examining the effects of self talk on performance has demonstrated that negative self talk is associated with diminished performance, and positive self talk is associated with better performance. This study found that negative self talk was associated with losing, and that a player's belief in using positive self talk was associated with scoring more points.

Subjects were evaluated during a tennis match for their observable self talk and self talk gestures, and were given a post match questionnaire. The questionnaire assessed thoughts regarding match outcomes, the positive and negative self talk used during the match, and how their positive or negative self talk affected their performance outcome. The Self Talk and Gestures Rating Scale (STARGS) was used to determine observable self talk gestures. Examples of negative self talk were, "You are slow!," "You are lazy!," "God, I am tight!" and "I'm so sloppy!" Examples of positive self talk were, "You can win!," "Come on!," and "Relax." Positive self talk was categorized by players into themes such as motivational, strategic, and calming. The results of this study supported findings from experimental and self report research in that negative self talk was associated with diminished performance, and players who believed in the utility of positive self talk scored more points.

Keating and Hogg (1995) conducted a study examining the preparation strategies athletes use prior to competition. Subjects were 15 professional hockey players. The researchers conducted interviews with each subject and observed their preparation strategies. It was found that precompetitive preparation was a process which resulted in

physical and psychological preparedness. Psychological preparation is noted to be a key factor in performance at the elite level. Psychological skills are identified as (a) concentration, (b) focusing, (c) refocusing, (d) arousal control, (e) relaxation, (f) goal setting, (g) positive thinking, and (h) calming the mind before competition. Positive self talk was found to be a technique frequently used by players to assist with competitive preparedness and to increase self-confidence. Moreover, a player's ability to relax was noted as a fundamental component of his/her performance. Relaxation is identified as enabling a player to have greater control over his/her anxiety, arousal, and focus. Furthermore, the researchers concluded that applying relaxation techniques increases the amount of available physical, emotional, and mental energy. Players noted that practicing relaxation and consciously focusing on developing it as important skills. Moreover, the difference between winning and losing is noted to be based on the psychological skills versus the physical skills of the athlete.

Self-confidence in sport has been found to lead to better sport performances (George, 1994; Martin & Gill, 1991). As well, positive self talk in sport has been found to lead to better sport performances (Van Raalte et al., 1992; Van Raalte et al., 1994). Research has suggested that positive self talk increases self-confidence in sport (Keating & Hogg, 1995). However, minimal empirical research exists examining these two variables. Relaxation techniques have also been identified as effective when used in conjunction with self talk interventions, and further research in this area is suggested (Finn, 1985; Kirkby, 1991; Meyers & Schleser, 1980). Moreover, equivocal findings exist in the literature regarding the effects of positive self talk in sport (Van Raalte, 1994). The purpose of this study was to examine the use of positive self talk on sport self-confidence, using experienced athletes with open skills in an actual sport setting.

Women in Sport

The late 1800s reflect a period in which women were viewed as fragile and weak. Female participation in sports was neither highly respected nor valued by societal norms and the majority population. The influence of Amy Morris Homans began the change of these traditional views of women. Amy Morris Homans was a pioneer in the field of physical education and women's involvement in exercise and sport. Her influence continues to be felt, acknowledged, and recognized by women in sport (Spears, 1978).

Traditional views of women as housewives and mothers further dominated the 1930s, 40s, and 50s. Women were supposed to dress appropriately and understand the importance of charm and beauty, and women who did not want children were seen as unnatural. Consequently, female athletes were not widely accepted or admired. The 1932 Olympics and The All-American Girls Professional Baseball League of 1943-1954 signified the onset of a broader opening for women in sport. Consequently, for a brief period of time, women received recognition for their athleticism (Weiller & Higgs, 1994; Welky, 1997). Since this time, the women's movement of the 1970s seemed to expand acceptance of women's participation in sport and continue the breakdown of traditional views (Vertinsky, 1994). As Merleau-Ponty argues,

The basic structures of human existence-consciousness, intentionality, purposiveness, etc. - have their foundation in the body as acting and expressing subject, then the inhibition of women's development of our body subjectivity implies a profound inhibition of our humanity (Morgan & Meier, 1988, p. 264).

Thus, complete inclusion of women in sport is necessary for women to develop into their full potential.

Women moved toward developing equality in sport with the effective legalization of Title IX in 1972. As a result of Title IX, sport programs at educational institutions receiving federal funding, went through major modifications. For example, increases

occurred in, (a) female sport participation, (b) sport activities offered to women, and (c) finances to cover the sport programs for women. According to this legislation,

Title IX is part of the Educational Amendments of 1972 and was designed to prevent educational institutions which receive federal financial assistance from discriminating against individuals on the basis of sex. In regard to sport, Title IX required educational institutions receiving federal funds to provide equal opportunities for males and females in any interscholastic, intercollegiate, club, or intramural athletics offered by the institution (Blinde, 1986, p. 13).

Title IX offers opportunities for women, however, many schools are not in compliance with the legislation (Blinde, 1986; Messner, 1988).

Blinde (1986) assessed the changes in attitudes, perceptions, and reactions toward sport before and after Title IX. The study found that pre-Title IX females viewed sport as fun, less likely to affect their academic career, and noted that less importance was placed on an athletic program in the selection of a university. Post-Title IX females placed more importance on the selection of a university based on the athletic program, and were more committed to sport than pre-Title IX athletes. Post-Title IX female athletes were also found to respond more similarly to their male counterparts than pre-Title IX female athletes. The study concluded that continued focus on fulfilling Title IX legislation is necessary and important for women to acquire equality in sport.

The patriarchal nature of society and sport have maintained females as second-class and at times invisible in sport. The history of sport up until the mid-1980s seemed to be the history of men in sport (Vertinsky, 1994). Applying male constructs and experiences to the study of women in sport has not enabled women to be accurately understood. Additionally, applicable theories and constructs based on women's perspectives and experiences have not been able to fully evolve as a result of male domination (Vertinsky,

1994). Hence, research focusing on women continues to be necessary in order for women to further evolve in sport (Fairchild, 1994).

The mid 1980s to the present represent a time in which gender differences and women in sport have received much more attention (Halbert, 1997; Vertinsky, 1994). Issues covered in research and media have focused on (a) opportunities for women and men in sport, (b) discrimination of female athletes, (c) women's experiences competing in sport, and (d) issues surrounding stigmas and stereotypes (Halbert, 1997). However, male dominance and patriarchy have not disappeared, and continue to be an influential factor in women's sport experiences (Borish, 1996; Halbert, 1997; McDermott, 1996; Vertinsky, 1994). In order for women to develop theories and conceptual paradigms that apply to their experiences, researchers need to begin studying women from female experiences versus male experiences (Borish, 1996; McDermott, 1996).

Tomlinson and Yorgnaci (1997) wrote an article in which female athletes and male coach relations were discussed. The article noted that power, control, and male domination within sport culture continue to be an overriding issue for women in sport. They identified the power structure, inherent in coach and athlete relations, can promote helplessness in female athletes when feeling controlled or harassed. Harassment, discrimination, and abuse were often noted to be unreported by female athletes. Ongoing male domination, and patriarchy within sport are stated as the main reasons for the maintenance of oppression of the female athlete and incidences of sexual harassment and abuse.

Participation by women in sport has been a controversial and debated issue (Borish, 1996; Hall, 1985; Messner, 1988). Women in sport have been viewed as unfeminine, deviant, lesbian, second class, and objects (Borish, 1996; Fairchild, 1994; Lamprecht & Stamm, 1996; McDermott, 1996). As well, sport has been and remains a predominantly patriarchal domain in which women have historically not been included (Borish, 1996; Hall, 1985; Lamprecht & Stamm, 1996; Tomlinson & Yorgnaci, 1997; Vertinsky, 1994;

Weiller & Higgs, 1994; Welky, 1997). The sport environment has been noted to provide an opportunistic environment of empowerment, social status, and equality for women (Halbert, 1997). However, male power and control have affected women's full attainment of equality and social status (Blinde et al., 1994; Messner, 1988). Moreover, the bias of research conducted on and by males further perpetuates the slow progress women have made in achieving shared power and control in sport (Fairchild, 1994; Lorber & Farrell, 1991; McDermott, 1996).

The continued enforcement of Title IX legislation will further open and expand opportunities for women in sport (Blinde, 1986; Messner, 1988). Additionally, the development of theories and constructs from research based on women's perspectives will support the evolution of women as true sport competitors (Borish, 1996; Halbert, 1997; Fairchild, 1994; Lorber & Farrell, 1991; McDermott, 1996; Vertinsky, 1994). Moreover, patriarchy and discrimination against women in sport is a common issue, thus women need to maintain a strong presence in sport and advocate for equality in order to dispel negative stereotypes and develop a solid stance in sport (Fairchild, 1994; Halbert, 1997; Hall, 1985; Tomlinson & Yorgnaci, 1997).

Gender Differences in Sport

Differences between men and women in sport has been an area of research that has received moderate attention. Researchers have found significant gender differences in the areas of (a) self-confidence (Lirgg et al., 1996; Meyers et al., 1996); (b) anxiety (Feltz, 1988; Meyers et al., 1996); (c) stress (Kerr & Vlaminkx, 1997; Madden & Kirkby, 1995); (d) affect (Edwards, 1995); (e) motivation (Meyers et al., 1996); (f) attribution (Hendy & Boyer, 1993); and (g) concentration (Meyers et al., 1996). Predominantly, men have been noted to have higher levels of (a) self-confidence, (b) motivation, (c) aggression, and (d) concentration as well as lower levels of anxiety and stress (Edwards, 1995; Feltz, 1988; Kerr & Vlaminkx, 1997; Lirgg et al., 1996; Meyers et al., 1996; Vealey, 1986). Women

have been found to attribute successful performances to uncontrollable factors such as luck and social support, while men attribute success to more controllable, stable factors such as psychological state, weight, and diet (Hendy & Boyer, 1993). Women have also demonstrated a more positive affect towards sport events, such as happiness, pleasure, and elation; conversely, men have demonstrated a more negative affect such as hostility, aggression, and anger (Edwards, 1995).

Feltz (1988) conducted a study which examined gender differences based on her (1982) respecification model of Bandura's self-efficacy theory. Feltz (1988) hypothesized that self-efficacy, past related experience, and heart rate would predict initial performance of a modified back dive, and past related experience and self-efficacy would predict subsequent performance. Self-efficacy was also proposed to mediate the influence of autonomic perception of arousal on performance. Males and females were compared based on (a) self-efficacy, (b) anxiety, (c) autonomic perception, (d) heart rate, (e) past performance accomplishments, and (f) performance behavior. Gender differences were not found for (a) self-efficacy, (b) heart rate, (c) past performance accomplishments, and (d) performance behavior. However, females were found to have significantly higher levels of state anxiety and perceived autonomic arousal than males. Past research was cited to be consistent with the current findings. Social and cultural norms were noted as possible contributing factors in the differences found. No differences were found for physiological factors, however, past research demonstrates equivocal results. Findings from this study support existing research on gender differences in sport, and future research is suggested.

Delingnieres, Marcellini, Brisswalter, and Legros (1994) performed a study which assessed individual perception of physical fitness based on personality traits. The study noted that perception of physical fitness is related to physical self-efficacy which is affected by self esteem and anxiety. Both males and females were found to significantly correlate a masculine role endorsement with perceived self-efficacy, perceived fitness, perceived

endurance, and perceived strength. Conversely, the feminine role endorsement was not found to significantly correlate with perceived self-efficacy, perceived fitness, perceived endurance, and perceived strength for both males and females. Thus, endorsing masculine characteristics was positively associated with self esteem and lower levels of anxiety for both males and females.

Meyers et al. (1996) assessed gender differences focusing on anxiety management, concentration, and self-confidence. Subjects were 149 male and 66 female college athletes. The Psychological Skills Inventory for Sports (PSIS) was administered to subjects. The PSIS identifies anxiety management, concentration, confidence, mental preparations, motivation, and team emphasis. Males were found to be significantly higher in concentration, self-confidence, and anxiety management. The study notes inconsistencies in prior research studies which assessed gender differences with anxiety management, self-confidence, and concentration.

Lirgg et al. (1996) conducted a meta analysis on gender differences with self-efficacy in sport. The analysis notes that minimal studies exist in the literature focusing on gender differences with self-efficacy in sport. Self-efficacy and self-confidence are used synonymously throughout the study. Males were found to report higher levels of self-confidence than females on a variety of physical skills. However, females were more confident on perceived feminine tasks and males were more confident on perceived masculine tasks. Existing gender norms and stereotypes of women are suggested as conclusions to the findings. Changing the existing gender norms and limiting stereotypes of women is indicated as an avenue toward achieving equality in sport.

Kerr and Vlaminkx (1997) examined gender differences on a novel risk sport activity. Subjects were 27 males and 40 females. Compared to males, females were found to have significantly higher levels of stress prior to the sport activity and substantially lower levels of stress following the sport activity. Psychological and biological predispositions to

stress responses are suggested to be factors in the differences found. In addition, sex role norms and cultural factors were also discussed to be contributing factors in the results found.

In summary, psychological differences between males and females in sport have been found by various researchers (Edwards, 1995; Feltz, 1988; Kerr & Vlaminkx, 1997; Lirgg et al., 1996; Madden & Kirkby, 1995; Meyers et al., 1996; Vealey, 1986). Males in sport have predominantly been found to have higher levels of self-confidence, concentration, motivation, and lower levels of stress and anxiety (Edwards, 1995; Feltz, 1988; Kerr & Vlaminkx, 1997; Lirgg et al., 1996; Meyers et al., 1996; Vealey, 1986). Psychological, biological, social, and cultural factors have been noted as contributing to the differences found between men and women (Feltz, 1988; Kerr & Vlaminkx, 1997). Further research is necessary to develop a theoretical framework of gender differences (Feltz, 1988). As well, constructs and theories based on studies designed for women and conducted on women are needed to provide a strong theoretical foundation (Fairchild, 1994; Lorber & Farrell, 1991; McDermott, 1996; Vertinsky, 1994). Therefore, the purpose of the current study is to conduct an in-depth analysis on positive self talk and self-confidence with women in sport.

Qualitative Analysis

Qualitative analysis has been identified to provide comprehensive, in-depth information (Hanson & Newburg, 1992; Scanlan et al., 1989). Data analysis, methods, and presentation of data are conducted in detailed, step-by-step procedures, resulting in a thorough analysis of results (Krane et al., 1997). Krane et al. further noted that qualitative researchers acknowledge that it is impossible for biases to be nonexistent within research, and therefore they logically address these biases in their research. Moreover, the aim of qualitative research is to understand the subject from his/her viewpoint.

Qualitative analysis is noted to be conducted in a variety of acceptable methods such as (a) hermeneutics, (b) ethnographies, and (c) grounded theory approaches (Krane et al., 1997). Naturalistic inquiry is a method of qualitative analysis that focuses on the experiences and viewpoints of the subject, allowing the data to emerge from the subject versus the researcher (Hanson & Newburg, 1992). Hanson and Newburg further report that naturalistic inquiry provides a detailed account of the procedures and data analysis, thereby allowing the reader to determine the applicability of the data to his/her own setting. The authors propose that naturalistic inquiry is appropriate for performance enhancement research because the athlete is the expert in his/her world of sport. In addition, the reader examines the data and determines if it is appropriate to his/her own setting.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) identify five axioms of naturalistic inquiry. The first axiom proposes that there are multiple realities in the world which are created by the individual. Consequently, the athlete in sport research is the expert of his/her own reality, and the researcher attempts to reconstruct the athletes' reality. The second axiom suggests that the relationship of the inquirer and the object of inquiry is interactive and inseparable. Therefore, the researcher and athlete are constantly influencing each other. The third axiom suggests that each setting is bound to the time and the context of the setting, and therefore cannot be generalized outside of the setting. As a result, the reader is responsible for determining the applicability of the findings to his/her own setting. The fourth axiom proposes that no cause and effect relationship exists, as all things are in a constant state of change and "mutual shaping." Thus, the researcher utilizes a working hypothesis, changing and shaping the hypothesis to accommodate new data and to be responsive to the environment. The fifth axiom acknowledges that the researcher's values and biases cannot be separated from the research. Thus, the researcher is responsible for acknowledging his/her biases and addressing them in the research.

Four processes are identified in naturalistic inquiry according to Hansen and Newburg (1992): (a) purposive sampling, (b) inductive data analysis, (c) grounded theory, and (d) emergent design. Purposive sampling refers to the selection of subjects based on their significance to the study. Consequently, the researcher selects subjects that meet specific criteria rather than random selection. Inductive data analysis reflects the process in which the researcher analyzes the data to formulate categories versus beginning with the categories and adapting the data to the categories. Grounded theory results from the inductive data analysis process in that the theory is based on the data. Thus, the researcher does not assume a predetermined conclusion. As a result, the individual who generates the data becomes the expert and the basis for interpreting the results. The researcher interprets the results by requesting feedback from the individual who produced the data about the accuracy of his/her interpretations. In this process, the researcher paraphrases the subject's responses during the interview to determine their accuracy, and the subject reads the completed study to assess correctness. The subjects responses to the study are included in the final draft of the study. Consequently, emergent design characterizes the process in which the design of the study is not predetermined, but rather, it emerges throughout the study. The overall goal of this process is to accurately reproduce the subject's reality. The end result allows the reader to determine the applicability of the results to his/her own setting.

The naturalist attempts to establish the study as trustworthy. Trustworthiness reflects the researcher's ability to convince the reader that the conclusions are of value and deserving of the reader's attention. Trustworthiness is established by addressing four specific areas: (a) credibility, (b) transferability, (c) dependability, and (d) confirmability. Credibility is comparable to the concept of internal validity. Credibility is determined by having the subject validate the researcher's interpretations and conclusions. Peer

debriefing, member checking, and triangulation are three techniques used to justify credibility.

Peer debriefing refers to the process in which a person not otherwise related to the study explores potential biases, clarify's the interpretations, and acts as a devil's advocate, proposing different perspectives. Member checking is a process in which the individual who generated the data and/or an individual significantly related to them reviews the data analysis, interpretations, and conclusions to verify their accuracy. Triangulation refers to the use of multiple sources to obtain the same information or similar conclusions in order to establish credibility.

Transferability is analogous to the idea of external validity. The researcher is not assumed to be able to generalize the findings to other settings outside of the time and context of his/her study. As a result, the reader is responsible to determine whether the findings are applicable to his/her own setting. The researcher provides a thick description of data analysis and procedures in order to allow the reader the opportunity to determine if the findings are relevant and/or applicable to his/her own setting or environment. The thick description includes a thorough account of all procedures and analysis to enable the reader to determine the applicability of the study to his/her own setting.

Dependability and confirmability correspond with the notion of reliability. According to the third and fourth axioms of naturalistic inquiry, people and situations are in a state of constant change and are bound to a particular time and context. Therefore, the naturalist does not assume a study can be replicated in its exact form. On the contrary, the naturalist focuses on establishing the results as reflecting the subject's reality and not the biases of the researcher. As well, the naturalist does not believe that it is possible for the researcher to be completely objective, and thus focus is placed on determining the results as logical interpretations of the data. An inquiry audit is conducted to establish dependability and confirmability. The researcher keeps an audit trail throughout the entire study of every

step taken. A person not otherwise related to the study reviews the step-by-step procedures of the study as well as the interpretations and conclusions. The auditor assesses the study for correct procedures, logical conclusions, and integrity.

A reflexive journal is a final component of substantiating trustworthiness which encompasses (a) credibility, (b) transferability, (c) dependability, and (d) confirmability. The researcher records activity and methodology related to the study in the reflexive journal. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), inclusive in the journal are (a) the researcher's daily schedule, (b) methodological issues, (c) logistics of the study, and (d) a personal diary of reflection.

The components and theory of naturalistic inquiry provide a clear, detailed account of data analysis, and procedures. Moreover, naturalistic inquiry does not assume that there is only one reality, rather the goal is to reconstruct the subject's reality accurately, thereby acknowledging individual differences. This process allows for a holistic approach to research in which the working hypothesis enables the results to be authentic and representative of the subject's experience. Furthermore, qualitative methods such as interviews and open-ended questions allow the researcher to conduct an analysis of the subject under study.

Chapter 3

Methods

Qualitative methods for data analysis and procedures were utilized with the overall goal of establishing the trustworthiness of the study. Specifically, the naturalistic method was applied to determine internal and external validity.

Participants

Participants were three female tennis players from a west coast university. The coach selected the participants based on participant experience with using positive and negative self talk. Participants were between the ages of 18 and 25 years old.

Instrumentation

A reflective journal was utilized to gather in-depth information about self talk and self-confidence. The athletes' reflective journals contained structured questions for the participants to answer (Appendix D). This format was reviewed by an individual not related to the study to rule out ambiguity and verify clarity with questions. Reflective journal writing facilitates the expression of feelings and emotions, identifies problem areas, allows for detailed information to be gathered, and enables participants to monitor their own progress (Kendall et al., 1990; Solley & Payne, 1990; Zieger, 1994). Reflective journal writing has been identified by various researchers as an effective intervention tool (Atkinson & Violato, 1993; Francis, 1995; Kendall et al., 1990; Mulcahy-Ernt & Ryshkewitch, 1994; Parker, Lambert & Burlingame, 1994; Solley & Payne, 1990; Zieger, 1994).

The researcher maintained a researcher's reflexive journal throughout the study. The researcher's reflexive journal was analyzed to verify consistency and logical decision making throughout the study. The researcher's reflexive journal provides a detailed account of all documentations and decisions made regarding the study.

Procedures

Participants met as a group in the tennis office (Appendix A). During this meeting, the purpose of the study was reviewed, the intervention of self talk was explained, and each subject completed an informed consent form (Appendix B). Interviews were scheduled with each subject to be conducted within the following 3 days. Each participant was interviewed individually for 20 minutes (Appendix C). During the interviews, participants were asked to select two negative self-statements that they frequently use while playing tennis. If any participant reported that she did not use negative self talk, then she would have been eliminated from the study and another subject would have been selected by the coach. Participants were taught to counter the negative self-statements identified with the positive self-statements developed, each time they occur during tennis practices and competitions. Participants were further instructed during this interview to write in a journal which followed a structured format and was given to them by the researcher. The journal was completed after each practice and competitive match for one month, assessing positive self talk, negative self talk, and self-confidence (Appendix F). During the interview, participants recorded their positive self-statements developed in the interview in their journals. Participants were given a journal during the interview with the questions for each data entry inside. Participants were called once a week during this one month period to check on their progress with completing the journals and using the self talk intervention (Appendix E). At the end of one month, participants met with the researcher and the journals were collected. Three of the journals were collected from participants. One of the four participants did not bring her journal on the day the journals were collected and agreed to bring it the following week. The researcher attempted to reach the participant many times by telephone without any returned phone calls. As a result, the participant was considered a dropout, and her data was not included. Following qualitative data analysis participants were called to review the conclusions and verify the accuracy of results.

Analysis of Data

The naturalistic method, as defined by Lincoln and Guba (1985), was used to assess internal and external validity. Establishing the trustworthiness of the study was an important component in determining the validity of the study. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), trustworthiness refers to how worthwhile the reader perceives the information gathered to be, based on the manner in which the findings were established. The researcher's ability to comprehensively utilize the techniques which supported establishing trustworthiness affected the reader's perception of the results as worthwhile. Four components of the naturalistic method by Lincoln and Guba aided in establishing the trustworthiness of a study: (a) credibility, (b) transferability, (c) dependability, and (d) confirmability. Each of these four components was assessed by employing specific methods.

Credibility is comparable to the scientific term internal validity. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), three methods are conducted to establish credibility: (a) peer debriefing, (b) triangulation, and (c) member checking. Kris Vantornhout, MA, former master's degree student of San Jose State University, served as the peer debriefer for the current study. The researcher collaborated with the peer debriefer on five separate occasions. The topics discussed focused on clarifying the personal biases of the researcher and discussing questions about the fluidity and comprehensiveness of the paper. The first debriefing included discussing the clarity and flow of Chapters 1, 2, and 3, reviewing the procedures and status of data collection. Kris concluded that there was fluidity and consistency with Chapters 1, 2, and 3. The second debriefing focused on data collection procedures, and reviewing the timeline for writing Chapters 4 and 5. Kris suggested that it may be difficult to write Chapters 4 and 5 prior to April 13, 1998. Kris suggested that the researcher phone the participants two times in the final week of data collection to remind them to bring their journals for the researcher to collect. The third debriefing included

discussing and confirming data analysis procedures, clarifying the researcher's interpretations of participant responses, and discussing effective ways for writing chapters 4 and 5. Kris suggested that the researcher analyze the data participant by participant and then focus on all three participants. Further she identified the researchers interpretations as clear and consistent. The fourth debriefing focused on the flow of Chapters 4 and 5, and clarifying the content within the chapters. Kris concluded that Chapters 4 and 5 were fluid and comprehensible. The fifth debriefing involved discussing the conclusions and recommendations for further study. Kris suggested that the researcher identify recommendations for the journal format and emphasize the changes found in self-confidence in the conclusions. Records of the debriefings were kept by the researcher within the reflexive journal.

Triangulation refers to the use of multiple sources based on the same information or similar conclusions to demonstrate consistency among findings. The following are examples in which the current study confirms triangulation. Martin and Gill (1991), Vealey (1986), and Weinberg and Jackson (1990) identified self-confidence as playing a central role in sport performance. Bandura (1977, 1990), Feltz, (1982), and George (1994) assessed self-efficacy theory and its relationship to performance outcomes. Conclusions from these studies indicated higher levels of self-efficacy were related to more successful performances. George (1994), Gould et al. (1989), Kirkby (1991), and Weinberg and Jackson (1990) studied positive self talk and found it to be the most effective and frequently used psychological intervention by coaches and athletes. Gender differences have been identified in sport by various researchers such as Edwards (1995), Kerr and Vlaminkx (1997), Lirgg et al. (1996), and Madden and Kirkby (1995).

Member checking is a process in which the participant that generated the data and/or individuals significantly related to the participant reviewed the interpretation of results and conclusions. The researcher's conclusions and results were thereby verified for accuracy

by the participants. Each participant was called by the researcher and asked questions about their journal responses to verify the accuracy of the researcher's interpretations. The researcher further reviewed the conclusions of the study with the participants confirming the researcher's interpretations. The participants confirmed the researcher's interpretations and conclusions. Moreover, the participants reported that they appreciated the study and they are still using positive self talk.

Transferability is similar to the scientific term external validity. According to naturalistic inquiry, the reader decides whether the findings were applicable to his/her own setting, and thus, the reader generalizes the findings. The researcher must provide a "thick description" of procedures in order for the study to be easily replicated. The reader then assesses whether the conclusions are relevant to his/her setting. Through a detailed account of the operations of data collection and analysis, the reader should be able to make an educated decision regarding the applicability of the study to his/her own setting. Following the collection of participants' journals, the researcher analyzed the data in a thorough and detailed manner. Initially, the questions in the journal format were divided into six categories based on the nature of the questions, (a) changes as a result of using positive self talk, (b) negative self talk examples, (c) positive self talk examples, (d) performance rating, (e) self-confidence rating, (f) self-confidence examples. The exact responses from each participants' journal were recorded onto large pieces of paper separated by their representative category. The researcher posted the papers on a wall to analyze each participants' data, looking for trends, themes, changes, fluctuations, differences, red-flags, blank entries, and consistency. These findings were further recorded onto large pieces of paper and analyzed next to each participants' data. At this point, the researcher began drawing conclusions and making interpretations based on the data. A summary for each participant's journal responses was written in Chapter 4. The researcher then analyzed all three participants' categories of journal responses to identify trends, themes, changes,

fluctuations, differences, red-flags, and consistency. These findings were also recorded onto a large piece of paper and analyzed. Conclusions and interpretations for all three participants were written in Chapter 4 and 5. Based on all of the data analyzed, overall conclusions and recommendations for future study were written and included in Chapter 5.

Dependability and confirmability are comparable to the scientific term reliability. According to naturalistic inquiry, all entities are in a constant state of mutual shaping and change, so it is therefore impossible to repeat a study in its exact form. Thus, dependability and confirmability demonstrate that the results were determined in a logical, consistent manner, minimizing the biases of the researcher. An inquiry audit was utilized by the researcher throughout the entire study to demonstrate integrity, discernment, and congruity with data collection. The researcher kept a researcher's reflexive journal of all documentations during the study to enable the auditor to perform a thorough inquiry audit. An individual not otherwise related to the study reviewed the researcher's reflexive journal determining whether the researcher's procedures and conclusions were consistent, logical and rational. Dr. James Bryant, Professor of Human Performance, San Jose State University, served as the auditor for this study. After a thorough analysis of the thesis and reflexive journal, the auditor concluded ,

I have reviewed the investigator's reflexive journal and find it to be a consistent log of meetings with various support participants associated with the study. Based on logic it appeared that meetings with individuals were described in a logical sequence although there were no dates to confirm the sequence. The reflexive journal appears to provide credence to the areas of credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability, and trustworthiness. When determining consistency, logic, and rationale of the researcher's procedures and conclusions the review of Chapters 4 and 5 were more helpful. It appears to me that the researcher's procedures and conclusions met these descriptors, and that the investigator followed suggestions recorded in her reflexive journal. Suggestion: I would assume that the reflexive journal and my evaluation of its use would be added to the appendix. Not required just a suggestion.

The researcher's reflexive journal, or a methodological log, was kept recording activity and decisions pertaining to the study. Each new decision and action that related to the research was recorded. The researcher's reflexive journal provided credence to the areas of (a) credibility, (b) transferability, (c) dependability, (d) confirmability, and (e) trustworthiness.

The researcher's biases and values cannot be separated from the research and therefore it is pertinent to identify these biases. The researcher acknowledges that she is a feminist and therefore holds certain beliefs about females in sport and society. Moreover, the researcher's personal experiences in sport as a coach and athlete may be considered biases in her perspectives of sport and athletes. Lastly, the researcher is a counselor and therefore holds particular values and beliefs about cognitive interventions and their effects.

The current study overcame the previous weaknesses in the literature of inexperienced subjects and nonathletes by using experienced athletes only. Additionally, the research design was specific to the sport setting and varying sport dynamics. The qualitative nature of research allowed for detailed information to be gathered which enhanced external validity. Moreover, the study overcame the lack of existing research by testing subjects in a naturally occurring, varying sport environment. Furthermore, due to equivocal findings in the previous literature, more research is needed in this area to provide consistency and support for the use of positive self talk as an intervention in sport (Van Raalte et al., 1992). Through peer debriefing, triangulation, member checking, the researchers' reflexive journal, and a thick description of procedures, prior inappropriate analysis methods were also overcome.

Chapter 4

Results

Chapter 4 contains data analysis for the three participants' journals. Each journal entry was analyzed and summarized in the following sections. Data for each individual participant is provided and a summary of general conclusions from all of the participants follows. A detailed account of the raw data from the participants' journals can be found in Appendix F. The purpose of the study was to provide an in-depth analysis on self talk and self-confidence with female tennis players.

Participant 1

(Questions 1 and 5 were combined because participants responded in a similar manner to both questions throughout the journal entries.)

Questions 1 and 5. What have you noticed (e.g., thoughts, feelings, experiences) with using positive self talk? Please give two examples.

Have you noticed any changes in your role as an athlete since you have been using positive self talk? Please explain in two or more sentences.

Participant 1 recorded 15 entries for questions 1 and 5. She seemed to have immediate and consistent positive results with applying the intervention. Her first journal entry reflected both a physiological and a psychological change as she reported that using positive self talk helped her to stay calm and focus on the present. Consecutive entries continued to demonstrate positive changes with using self talk. For example, she reported she felt more confident, she felt better every time she used positive self talk, and she walked more confidently with her shoulders, back and head up. She recalled, however, that sometimes she forgot to use positive self talk. Developing a positive dialogue and using positive self talk on a consistent basis can take practice and time, as immediate responses are often representative of patterns of behavior and years of conditioning. She noted that sometimes it was too difficult to resist using negative self talk when she really

needed to win. In the same entry, she reported that she could not stop saying bad things because she would become too angry at herself. However, in her last match on that day, she was able to relax. Her ability to relax seems to demonstrate that the intervention was working in a positive manner. Although, her difficulty with resisting negative self talk may be representative of conditioned responses. Understanding that patterns and conditioned responses take time and practice to change, the intervention was designed in a manner to counteract negative thoughts as they arose.

In further entries, she reported that it was difficult to change a bad mood even with using positive self talk. Thus, even though she may have started off positively she could have slowly become negative. She further recalled positive self talk was easy to use when she was focused, and difficult to use when her concentration was off. Moreover, she noted that positive self talk equaled winning. Thus, integrating the intervention seems to require practice in order to develop a foundational framework for a more consistent positive dialogue. It is apparent that she was able to use the intervention and have success with it. However, she had difficulty implementing it on a consistent basis. In fact, she reported in her fifth entry that she needed more consistent practices and matches. Therefore, these comments seem to support the need for an intervention period of at least 4 weeks.

In approximately the middle of her journal input, she reported she was playing better, she did not react to missed shots as much, she felt better, and she was not as sluggish on the court, all as a result of using positive self talk. As well, she found it more helpful when she started off with positive self talk and more difficult when she tried to become positive in the middle of practice or a match. At this point, she appeared to be effectively implementing the intervention and having better results using it. Additionally, she noted her doubles partner was a good source of positive self talk and helped her stay motivated. This factor may also have been contributing to her success with positive self talk when she played doubles.

Her journal entries continued to reflect increased self-confidence levels and overall success with using positive self talk. She reported she looked and felt more confident on the court and that it became easier for her to use positive self talk. She also believed positive self talk really worked if it was used correctly. Moreover, it helped her focus on her tennis rather than having to work on getting her mind back into the game. In entries 12 and 13, she noted it was difficult to stay positive when she was losing or when she should have been beating her opponent; positive self talk helped her more when she was winning. At the same time however, she reported her confidence level was more consistent and she was confident that she had the ability to beat anyone. Thus, using positive self talk when she was losing or in a bad mood seemed to be challenging and difficult for her. However, her increased and more consistent confidence levels seem to reflect an overall positive result with using the intervention.

In her fourteenth entry, she reported she was not pleased with her performance but she was still able to take something positive from it. This seems significant in that she was able to apply a positive attitude even when she was not performing well. In fact, this was the first time she had noted this throughout her journal entries. Further, this appears to reflect a more stable influence from using positive self talk, as earlier she reported lower levels of confidence with poorer performances and difficulty staying positive when she was not playing well. Her last entry appears to support the overall positive outcomes with using the intervention. During this practice, she recalled that she played hard, stayed positive, and had the best practice of the semester. Moreover, she reported she felt better when she used positive self talk on the court and noticed that she used to get angry very easily but now she felt a little calmer. This entry also reflects a more enduring result when using positive self talk. Specifically, changes in her temperament and her ability to control her impulses seem to represent notable results from using positive self talk. Moreover, her ability to decrease her anger and feel calmer may reflect the use of diaphragmatic breathing

and progressive muscular relaxation. Both of these techniques assist with relaxation, feeling centered in one's embodiment and the ability to focus. Thus, they may have had an impact on her effectiveness with the use of positive self talk.

Question 2. How many times (approximately) during your practice/game have you experienced your negative self talk? Please give two examples of your negative self talk.

Participant 1 responded to 11 out of 15 entries for the number of times she experienced negative self talk during a practice/game. Her range was from one to 12. The highest number of times she experienced negative self talk was 10 to 12 times for entries 1 and 4. The lowest number of times she experienced negative self talk was one time for entry 13. The number of times she reported using negative self talk decreased over the intervention period reflecting positive results with using the intervention. She experienced more negative self talk in the beginning five entries and less for the remaining six entries.

She responded by giving two examples for each of the 15 entries regarding examples of negative self talk. The content and nature of negative self talk did not seem to change over the intervention period. The majority of negative self-statements for participant 1 were sarcastic or self-diminishing such as, "Retard," "You reject," "You're so good!," "That's pathetic," "I'm not any good," "Hit, you wuss," and "You're so bad."

Question 3. Write positive self-statements countering two of your negative self-statements.

She responded by giving positive self-statements for each of the 15 entries for question 3. The majority of positive self-statements were instructional, motivational, and self-esteem enhancing in nature. The content of the positive self-statements seemed to effectively counter the negative self talk. Examples of positive self-statements were: "Come on," "I can," "Don't worry," "Next one," "I am good," "Focus on next point," "Keep moving your feet," "Hit out on the ball," and "You can do this." Overall, she seemed to competently develop positive self-statements.

Question 4. How would you rate your current practice/game performance on a scale of 1 to 5 in which 1 represents below average and 5 represents above average?

She responded to each of the 15 entries for Question 4. Her range was from 3 to 5. She rated her performance a 5 on the third entry; in this entry she also reported having won a very important game, and as a result, she felt very good. She rated her performance a 3 on five separate entries in the beginning, middle, and end of the intervention period. The remainder of the entries she rated her performance as a 4 which was 9 out of 15 entries. According to her responses to Question four, her performance rating actually appeared to slightly decrease over the intervention period. However, her responses to Questions 1 and 5 seemed to reflect an overall increase in her performance as she reported she played better as a result of positive self talk. The self-report nature of the journal responses may be a factor in the discrepancy between these questions. Consequently, it is possible that the participant, when asked to rate her performance, assigned herself a lower rating even if she felt as though she was playing better. Moreover, this participant may associate a high-performance rating with winning, as exemplified on her third entry. Thus, if she does not win, she may not rate her performance very high. Overall, this scale did not seem to accurately reflect the changes in performance noted as a result of using positive self talk. As well, the changes that were reflected in self-confidence rating suggest that self-confidence may possibly change initially and performance may take longer to show changes.

Question 6. Rate your current level of self-confidence on a scale of 1 to 5 in which 1 represents below average and 5 represents above average.

She responded to each of the 15 entries for Question 6. Her range was from 2 to 5. She rated her self-confidence a 5 on the third entry which was the same entry she rated her performance a 5. Again, on this entry, she reported having won a big game and felt very good about herself. As well, she recalled that she felt better every time she used positive

self talk and she did not think about her mistakes. She further rated her self-confidence a 5 on entries 8 and 11. In these entries she reported she played better when she used positive self talk, she did not react to missed shots as much, positive self talk was easier to use, and it really did work. She rated her self-confidence a 2 in her first entry, at which time she reported one of her highest number of times experiencing negative self talk. Moreover, in this same entry, she noted positive self talk helped keep her calm and focused. This rating may reflect her average level of self-confidence prior to the intervention. She indicated in entry 13 from Questions 1 and 5, her self-confidence became more consistent after using positive self talk. Overall, ratings of self-confidence increased over the intervention period. This increase may reflect the changes due to the positive self talk intervention.

Question 7. Please give two examples of your current level of self-confidence.

She responded to 14 out of 15 entries for Question 7. Examples of self-confidence predominantly reflected body posture, skill/technique, and performance outcomes. For example, “Slumped shoulders,” “Looking down,” and “Losing a game” were examples of lower ratings of self-confidence. “Winning,” “Playing well,” “Hitting the ball hard,” “Hitting through the ball,” “Staying positive,” “Walking with good posture,” and “Walking with a good pace,” were examples of higher ratings of self-confidence. Overall, examples of self-confidence reflected higher levels of self-confidence versus lower levels.

Participant 2

Questions 1 and 5. What have you noticed (e.g., thoughts, feelings, experiences) with using positive self talk? Please give two examples.

Have you noticed any changes in your role as an athlete, since you have been using positive self talk? Please explain in two or more sentences.

Participant 2 responded to 10 out of 12 entries for Questions 1 and 5. Implementing the intervention and using positive self talk effectively seemed to be an issue she worked with throughout the intervention period. Changes in her performance and in

her levels of self-confidence in general, reflected positive outcomes with using positive self talk. In her first journal entry, she reported she was aware her intensity was low, and when she used positive self talk, her intensity did not increase. The following two entries were blank. At this point, it seems she was attempting to adjust to using the intervention. Consecutive entries noted positive changes with using the intervention as it assisted her to be prepared to play her next point, and her negative reactions to missed shots decreased. She further recalled she was aware that she used positive self talk, and noticed how it changed to negative self talk along with her body image in response to a few errors and increased anxiety. Her awareness of both her positive and negative self talk is a positive factor, as her ability to identify her self talk will further assist her to change it. Moreover, her responses seem to reflect her attempts to implement and adapt to using positive self talk. She further indicated it was difficult to stay positive when she was frustrated or when she made performance errors. At these times, using positive self talk was challenging and may take more practice and time to develop consistency with applying it.

In her fifth entry, she reported she experienced no negative self talk, and her talk was more positive, which continued to assist her to be prepared for her next point. This is a very positive outcome from using the intervention, and reflects her ability to experience control over her self talk. However, in her sixth entry, she reported the highest number of negative self talk statements, and noted negative self talk brought her down and often made her lose her next point. Moreover, under stress of competition, she stated it was difficult for her to stay positive; when she focused too much on her self talk, she became tight. As a result, she reported it was better for her to stay calm and focus on her breath. This fluctuation in the number of times she used negative self talk may reflect her ability to adjust to the intervention. In addition, her heightened awareness, as well as her focus on negative and positive self talk, may also be a factor in the fluctuation. Moreover, during competition, and under stress, her conditioned responses may be the most difficult for her

to change, thus requiring more practice. Her ability to focus on her breath and stay calm supports the use of diaphragmatic breathing and possibly progressive muscular relaxation. This is the first time she has reported the use of these components of the intervention, and they appear to have assisted her in a positive manner.

In approximately the middle of her journal input, she reported positive self talk was helpful to her in practice, and she was able to get more done in the same amount of time. As well, she noted positive self talk helped her stay present, intense, and focused, particularly, when her mind was drifting. At this point, it seems she has increased her ability to use positive self talk effectively, as her entries reflect positive outcomes. Similar to Participant 1, she reported it was hard to stop negative self talk once she started using it. Further entries reflect continued success with using positive self talk; she also reported that she could be positive and intense without a lot of self talk. The decrease in the amount of self talk, whether positive or negative, may reflect her increased ability with applying the intervention.

Stopping and reversing her negative self talk seemed to be an issue for her up until her eleventh entry. She noted her negative self talk was less self-directed and seemed as a release of frustration. This demonstrates a transformational shift and may reflect that the intervention was working by changing the content of her negative self talk. She further reported she was able to reverse her negative self talk after she started using it. Her final entry reflects overall positive results with using the intervention, as she indicated no negative self talk; she was able to play hard and have intensity. This reflects a more stable result with using positive self talk. Throughout her journal entries, she noted being conscious or aware of her feelings while using positive self talk. This consciousness may, in part, be a result of focusing on her self talk due to the intervention, thus, creating more awareness of her feelings. Becoming aware of her feelings and self talk is an important part of successfully using the intervention and changing conditioned responses. This

awareness enabled her to promptly identify her self talk and its effects on her feelings, which may overall have assisted her to have more control over her feelings and her self talk.

Question 2. How many times (approximately) during your practice/game have you experienced your negative self talk? Please give two examples.

She responded by giving two examples for each of the 12 entries for the number of times she experienced negative self talk during a practice/game. Her range was from zero to 30. She reported her highest number of times, 30, on the sixth entry. She noted in response to Questions 1 and 5 she was really frustrated and tight on this entry. As well, she indicated, under stress of competition, she still spoke negatively; as a result, she often lost the next point. In this journal entry, it seems her performance was lower and her negative self talk was higher. For entries 9 and 12, she reported zero times experiencing negative self talk. This represents a substantial change in the amount of negative self talk. As well, it reflects her ability to completely stop using negative self talk. Overall, the number of times she reported using negative self talk decreased over the intervention period, reflecting positive changes with using the intervention.

She responded to 10 out of 12 entries for examples of negative self talk. In the two entries that were blank, she reported zero negative self talk. The nature of the negative self talk seemed to change over the intervention period as the statements became less self-directed and more externalized. This seems to represent a significant shift as a result of the intervention, particularly changes in self-confidence, as externalizing statements versus internalizing statements can demonstrate a transformational shift. The majority of negative self-statements were expressed frustrations, self-abasement on technique, or self-diminishing statements. There were two entries which were left blank, and she reported experiencing no negative self talk on those days. Examples of negative self-statements were, "I couldn't be bothered," "I'm so slow," "I've never shanked so many serves,"

“God that’s one of the worst games,” “ God, my serve is so bad,” “Can’t hit this volley,” “So flat,” “I hate this drill,” “Curse/swear,” and “What is that?.”

Question 3. Write positive statements countering two of your negative self-statements.

She responded to 11 out of 12 entries for Question 3. Entry 12 was blank and it coincided with entry 12 for Question 2 in which zero was reported for number of negative self-statements. The majority of positive self-statements were instructional, motivational, and calming/relaxing in nature. The content of these statements appeared to accurately counter the negative self-statements. For example, “Be intense,” “Move your feet,” “Let’s go,” “Stay on your toes,” “Breathe,” “Relax,” “Watch the ball,” “Be patient,” “Focus,” and “Be aggressive.” In general, Participant 2 seemed to understand positive self talk and effectively counter her negative self talk.

Question 4. How would you rate your current practice/game performance on a scale of 1 to 5 in which 1 represents below average and 5 represents above average?

Participant 2 responded to each of the 12 entries for Question 4. Her range was from 1 to 5. The lowest performance rating was reported for entry 1 in which she indicated she was aware her intensity was low, and when she used positive self talk, her intensity did not increase. She also reported experiencing negative self talk 15 times on this entry. Difficulty implementing the intervention and the strength of her conditioned responses may have had an effect on her performance. Entries 7, 9, and 12 she rated her performance as a five. These entries correlate with responses to Questions 1, 2, 5, and 6, entries 9 and 12 in which she reported she played intensely, she felt confident, and she experienced negative self talk five times and zero times. There was an increase in performance ratings over the intervention period, particularly during the second half. These changes may reflect the impact of using the intervention.

Question 6. Rate your current level of self-confidence on a scale of 1 to 5 in which 1 represents below average and 5 represents above average.

She responded to each of the 12 entries for Question 6. Her range was from 2 to 5. She rated her self-confidence a 2 on her first entry. This coincides with questions 1, 2, 4, and 5, entry 1, in which she reported a low performance rating, a high number of negative self-statements, and a feeling of low intensity. She rated her self-confidence a 5 in entries 9, 11, and 12. These ratings also correlate with Questions 1, 2, 4, and 5 in which she felt positive and intense and rated her performance high. In Question 2, entry 11, she reported 15 negative self-statements. However, she was able to reverse her negative self talk for the first time. This is a substantial change, reflecting her ability to effectively use positive self talk. There was an increase in self-confidence ratings over the intervention period, particularly during the second half.

Question 7. Please give two examples of your current level of self-confidence.

She responded to 12 entries for Question 7. Self-confidence seemed to be characterized or rated based on performance outcomes, level of intensity/motivational level, feelings, and emotional control. For example, "Improved from beginning to end of practice," "Positive body image through match," "Confident to come back after losing concentration," "Good emotional control and determination," "Pump self up more," "Motivated to control self frustration and negative self talk," "Match playing is improving and so is confidence," and "Confidence much better after a lot of matches."

Participant 3

Questions 1 and 5. What have you noticed (e.g., thoughts, feelings, experiences) with using positive self talk? Please give two examples.

Have you noticed any changes in your role as an athlete, since you have been using positive self talk? Please explain in two or more sentences.

Participant 3 responded to 14 out of 15 entries for Questions 1 and 5. She had increases in self-confidence and performance ratings from the beginning to end of the intervention period. She reported some difficulty with using positive self talk predominantly related to feelings of fear and doubt. In the beginning of her journal input, she noted her bad thoughts outweighed her good thoughts, and she had difficulty believing her positive self talk. She experienced this as fooling herself, and had doubts in the back of her mind. In the following entry, she noted that her experiences with using positive self talk were the same as the day before. However, at the same time, she reported she focused more on each point, on the importance of winning the match, on not letting bad shots get to her, and on not allowing outside things to get to her. It seems that although she was still experiencing fear and doubt, she also had success with focusing her mind and not allowing bad shots to affect her.

Her subsequent entry noted she used positive self talk in her doubles match and felt very confident, actually believing her positive thoughts with minimal doubts. She reported her positive thoughts were automatic and she did not have time to think negatively because the match was so important. Thirty minutes earlier, however, she recalled in her singles match she felt very different, not as confident or positive. This fluctuation from negative to positive thoughts demonstrates her ability to change her thoughts, specifically based on the circumstances. It further reflects her experiences playing singles and doubles. This is a theme throughout her journal in which she reports feeling more confident in doubles than singles, and uses her partner as a reason to be positive. This also reflects her ability to be positive and have self talk work for her. Consequently, she was able to overcome her doubt and fear, which is a key issue she works with. In her fourth entry, she again reported having the same fear of not playing as well as before, and her positive self talk was not outweighing her fearful thoughts, even in practice. The change from negative to positive thoughts may represent her difficulty adjusting to the intervention and integrating a

more positive dialogue. As well, changing her conditioned responses of fear and doubt may certainly take time and practice to effectively work through.

Positive self talk was beginning to work more consistently for her at her fifth entry, and remains positive throughout the rest of the intervention period. She seemed to be integrating positive self talk more effectively. As a result, her fear decreased and her confidence increased. She reported her performance increased when she told herself she could do it. Consequently, she recalled she felt better about herself because she was happy with her performance. She also reported positive self talk kept her competitive as well as eager. Further, she started to believe her positive self talk more. Working through her doubt and fear seemed to be her biggest challenge. Thus, for her to believe her positive self talk shows substantial improvement. Her consistency with using positive self talk seems to demonstrate a more complete integration with using the intervention and transcending negative thoughts. She seems to have more success in the beginning of matches and practices with using positive self talk. For instance, she reported in two entries that she felt good at the start of her match and that positive self talk kept her in the first set, but she let her mind go after that. She continued to report she was more confident and comfortable in doubles and found it easier to be positive because she had to keep her partner positive. She further indicated she thought more about her partner than herself, she was very positive, and she enjoyed playing doubles. In singles, however, she noted she thought twice before hitting certain shots that she hit easily in doubles. She clearly seems to have a different belief system or pattern of thoughts in doubles than in singles. She did recall that in the beginning of playing doubles with her partner, she was uncertain about how well they would play together. Thus, she had a similar doubt in doubles, initially, that she appears to have ongoing in singles. Specifically, her fear in singles is focused on not playing well. If she was able to work through her fears in doubles, perhaps she also has that same ability to be just as confident in singles. In her eleventh entry, she reported in

singles, her positive self talk kept her in the match even when she was down; she was positive and her mental strength won her the second set. Conversely, in the same entry, she indicated that her mind still wandered and she was still unsure about her game. Hence, she continued to struggle with totally integrating a positive dialogue and decreasing her doubt.

In the last three entries of her journal input, she had the most success with using positive self talk. Her confidence level increased, her performance level increased, her fear decreased, and she noted her positive self talk was the best it had been in weeks. She reported she took control of her practice, she was focused, she was happier, she believed in herself more, and her positive self talk was good. In each of these entries, she noted only positive experiences, whereas in past entries, she often had doubt or uncertainty along with positive results. Her performance and confidence on the court affected her feelings off the court as she said she was happier off the court. This increased belief in herself and decreased doubt are two significant factors demonstrating changes on a deeper or more substantial level. As well, her consistent success from the fifth entry to the final entry with using positive self talk, even with doubt and fear, indicates an overall positive effect with using the intervention.

Question 2. How many times (approximately) during your practice/game have you experienced your negative self talk? Please give two examples of your negative self talk.

She responded to 9 out of 15 entries for number of times she experienced negative self talk. She did not respond with a specific number of times, rather she noted “a lot” or “few times” to demonstrate her experiences. In three separate entries, 3, 5, and 10, she reported she did not experience any negative self talk at all. These entries coincide with Questions 1 and 5, the same entries in which she reported she felt very positive, confident, and focused. These entries also demonstrate her ability to stop using her negative self talk which further reflects a level of control over changing her conditioned responses. The

highest amount of negative self talk was characterized by “a lot” reported for entries 4 and 13. In Questions 1 and 5, she recalled she felt fearful and angry, and positive self talk was not able to outweigh her negative self talk. Overall, the number of negative self-statements seemed to fluctuate inconsistently over the intervention period, thus, a trend was not demonstrated.

She responded by giving two examples of negative self talk for 15 entries. The negative self-statements were self-doubting and self-defeating in nature about her playing ability. Fear and worry seemed to be an overriding theme throughout her journal entries and her self talk. For example, fear and worry in negative self talk of bad shots: “Here I go again back to the bad play I’ve been playing,” “I’m not playing well,” “I’m not hitting the ball clean,” “Am I ever going to play like I used to?,” “Maybe turning pro isn’t for me,” and “Why am I playing badly.”

Question 3. Write positive self-statements countering two of your negative self-statements.

She responded to 9 out of 15 entries for Question 3. The entries which were blank were also blank or appropriately correlated with answers from Question 2. Specifically, in the three entries in which she reported no negative self talk, she did not write any positive self-statements. As well, the other entries she had left blank in Question 2 except for entry 13, in which she reported she was angry at everything. The positive self-statements were self-esteem enhancing, self-motivating, and instructional in nature. For example, “I believe in myself,” “I will focus on the next point,” “This is the new beginning,” “I can do this,” “Just watch the ball,” “Move your feet,” “Each ball I’ll get better,” and “Next shot.” Overall, she seemed to develop an understanding of how to use positive self talk and the ability to stop using negative self talk.

Question 4. How would you rate your current level of performance on a scale of 1 to 5 in which 1 represents below average and 5 represents above average?

She responded to 15 entries for Question 4. Her range was between 1 and 4. She rated her performance a 1 for entries 1 and 13. For Questions 1 and 5 entry 1, she reported she felt fear and doubt that outweighed her positive self talk. For Question 1, 2, and 5, entry 13, she indicated she was angry at everything, and reported her highest number of negative self-statements. The highest performance rating was a 4, which she rated entries 3, 7, 10, 11, 14, and 15. Her performance rating increased over the intervention period. Specifically, the final third of entries increased substantially.

Question 6. Rate your current level of self-confidence on a scale of one to five in which one represents below average and five represents above average.

She responded to 15 entries for question six. Her range was from 1 to 4/5. She rated her self-confidence a 1 for entries 1 and 13, in which correlations can be made to her performance rating on those days and the experiences she was having with using positive and negative self talk. She rated herself a 4/5 for entry 10 in which she indicated she felt confident, hit shots easily, was very positive, and did not experience any negative self talk at all. Overall, her self-confidence ratings increased, particularly over the final third of the intervention period.

Question 7. Please give two examples of your current level of self-confidence.

She responded to 12 out of 15 entries for Question 7. Her examples of self-confidence focused on performance, technique/skill , and fear/worry. Fear was an overall theme in which she reported she felt more confident and comfortable over the course of the intervention period. For example, "Fear to hit the ball completely all of the time," "Not worried about how I am playing at all and know we are going to win," and "Felt relieved ...after each ball I hit better," were examples of fear and worry. Examples of performance and skill/technique were "Felt in control and playing well," "Felt more confident for next match," "Hit ball better during points and went for more," "Confident stepping on the court

and comfortable hitting shots,” “Comfortable being on the court,” “Hitting confident shots and comfortable,” and “Strokes better, better technique, more confident and comfortable.”

Summary of Participants 1, 2, and 3

Questions 1 and 5. There appeared to be several trends in the responses from participants 1, 2, and 3 for Questions 1 and 5. Increases in their ability to be focused and increases in self-confidence were indicated by each of the participants. As well, categories of positive self talk were instructional, motivational, and self-esteem enhancing in nature. Overall, each participant seemed to cultivate the ability to use positive self talk effectively over the course of the intervention period. However, they reported it was hard to resist using negative self talk when in competition or when losing a match. As well, they indicated it was easier to use the intervention when they started off their match /practice, applying it rather than attempting to become positive after being negative. It appears that under the pressure of competition, participants were more likely to use conditioned responses or what was most comfortable rather than risking the use of a new tool/positive self talk.

As some of the journal entries noted, (a) negative self talk was used in competition, (b) negative self talk was sometimes easier to use than positive self talk, (c) participants often doubted their belief in positive self talk, and (d) positive self talk was not as effective when losing a practice/match or when feeling the stress of competition. These references seem to support the notion that the conditioned responses of these athletes were more negative during these instances. Thus, incorporating positive self talk and eventually a more positive dialogue entails taking time to change negative conditioned responses.

It was further apparent that the participants adjusted to the intervention at her own pace, taking time and practice to effectively use positive self talk. Changing conditioned responses or patterned thoughts requires an adequate duration of time to apply a new way of thinking or responding. The intervention period was designed to meet these needs and

allow participants a sufficient amount of time to integrate the intervention successfully. In fact, each participant indicated in her last entries that positive self talk was working better for her, and her self-confidence and performance reflected this.

Participants 1 and 3 reported they were more confident and performed better in doubles. Further, they seemed to find playing doubles was better because they could help each other stay positive. Participant 3 specifically noted that she did not play as well in singles, and by focusing on helping her partner, she was more positive.

Question 2. The nature of participants' negative self-statements were similar in the area of self-diminishing comments or "put-downs." For example, "You are so slow," "That's horrible," "I am so pathetic," and "I am playing so bad."

Question 3. The content of some of the participants' positive self-statements were similar in nature. The statements were instructional, motivational, and self-esteem enhancing in nature. For example, "I can do it," "Move your feet," and "Next point and focus."

Questions 4 and 6. Overall, these questions did not appear to parallel the responses given in Questions 1 and 5. The participants seemed to report more substantial changes in performance and self-confidence in Questions 1 and 5 than in Questions 4 and 6. Participants may have associated a high performance rating with playing their best, and therefore, they may have assigned a lower performance rating even if they felt as though they were playing better. Moreover, high performance ratings may have been associated with winning, thus, if they did not win, they may not have rated their performance very high. External factors such as the coaches' reactions, the fans, or time of day, that the study did not control for, may have also been a contributing factor.

Question 7. Self-confidence increased for each participant, and examples of self-confidence reflected increased or decreased performance, skills, and techniques.

Chapter 5

Conclusions

The analysis of results indicated that each of the three participants increased her self-confidence levels as a result of using positive self talk. These findings are supported by Gould et al. (1989), Keating and Hogg (1995), and Weinberg and Jackson (1990). Keating and Hogg report that self talk has been used by coaches and athletes to improve self-confidence in sport. Gould et al. and Weinberg and Jackson note that minimal research exists focusing on the effects of self talk on self-confidence in sport, and suggest that future research in this area is important. Furthermore, self talk has been identified as the most effective and most frequently used psychological intervention by coaches and athletes (Gould et al. 1989; Kirkby, 1991; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990).

Over the course of the intervention period, self-confidence ratings increased for each participant peaking in the last third of the journal entries. Participants recorded the changes in their self-confidence levels, indicating an increase from the onset of the intervention period to the conclusion of the intervention period. Changes in self-confidence further appeared to frequently parallel changes in performance. Thus, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between self-confidence and performance in which each has the ability to influence the other. This conclusion is supported by Vealey's (1986) conceptual model of self-confidence in sport as well as Feltz's (1979, 1982) work with Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy. Bandura's theory of self-efficacy assumes that when an individual is capable of executing a task and incentives are present, self-efficacy will predict performance.

Positive self talk was further found to increase participants' performance ratings. This conclusion is supported by Van Raalte et al. (1992, 1994) and Weinberg and Jackson (1990). These researchers found self talk to be used by coaches and athletes to improve

performance in sport. Participants reported increases in performance ratings particularly over the final third of the journal entries. Techniques, skills, and winning/losing were the basis of performance ratings. Playing better, with increased intensity and more confidence, was an indication of increased performance.

The writer concludes that in order to develop a more positive dialogue and increase self-confidence, an adequate intervention period is necessary. Utilizing a sufficient intervention period to measure changes in self-confidence is further supported by George (1994). George noted that brief intervention periods are a limitation within the current self-confidence research in sport. He suggests that future self-confidence research should utilize extended data collection periods. The current study was designed to allow the participants the appropriate time necessary to decrease negative conditioned responses and develop a more positive dialogue. Based on participant responses, successfully implementing and adjusting to the intervention required virtually the entire intervention period. Even though positive results were experienced at the beginning of the intervention period for some of the participants, developing consistency with the intervention, reversing negative self talk, increasing performance, and increasing self-confidence necessitated the full 30 days.

Although each participant experienced positive changes based on applying the intervention, they appeared to differ in the manner in which the changes occurred. Specifically, the time to adjust to and effectively integrate the intervention varied. For example, participant 1 appeared to have immediate and consistent positive results with using the intervention, whereas participant 3 started to have more consistent results one-third of the way into her journal entries.

Based on the results, it can be concluded that positive self talk is relatively easy to teach and monitor. Participants were instructed on how to use positive self talk, in a short interview. After that time, participants were able to implement the intervention into their

practice/match routine and monitor their own progress. The journal component of the intervention allowed individuals to record their experiences and witness their changes over time. Moreover, utilizing positive self talk in conjunction with journal writing, enables individuals to facilitate their own personal growth on and off the court.

These conclusions are supported by Kendall et al. (1990), Solley and Payne (1990), and Zieger (1994). These researchers noted that reflective journal writing allows for detailed information to be gathered, promotes the expression of feelings, and enables participants to monitor their own progress. Thus, each participant had their own process in regards to feelings which emerged and the nature of negative self talk which was reported.

It was apparent, based on participant responses, that applying positive self talk elicited the conscious awareness of each participant's mental, emotional, and physical experiences while playing tennis. Consequently, participants reported different thoughts and feelings which arose as well as their experiences of their performance. Changes in participants' thoughts, feelings, and performance were further noted over the course of the intervention period. For example, feelings of fear, anger, doubt, and worry decreased. As well, self-directed negative self-statements decreased, and the overall amount of negative self talk decreased. Participants noted the changes they were experiencing which allowed them to witness their growth and/or areas for further improvement. Overall, this provides athletes with the opportunity to increase their control over their performance and self-confidence.

The writer concludes that utilizing positive self talk facilitates increased focus, preparedness, motivation, and self-instruction. These findings are supported by Van Raalte et al. (1994). Van Raalte et al. found that participants categorized positive self talk into themes such as motivational, strategic, and calming. Participant responses indicated trends in these areas. Specifically, participants felt ready to play their next point and felt

more focused. As well, the content of participants' positive self talk indicated they were "psyching" themselves up and instructing themselves on how to play better.

Utilizing positive self talk in the beginning of a practice/match was further identified as more effective than attempting to reverse negative self talk or initiate positive self talk in the middle of a practice/match. Participants seemed to respond universally on this point, establishing a pattern in this area. It is possible that participants' self talk, whether positive or negative, had an impact on the degree of ease or difficulty with changing the self talk. Thus, participants reported that when they were using positive self talk from the beginning, therefore possibly starting off with a more positive attitude, their negative self talk was not as present. Hence, their negative self talk, or perhaps conditioned responses were not strong enough to change their positive self talk. Assuming that negative self-statements were more conditioned than positive self-statements, they would be more difficult to change. Therefore, reversing negative self talk demonstrated an ability to implement the intervention successfully. Conversely, positive self talk may take time and practice to become stronger than negative self talk, and to develop as a new thought pattern. As a result of these findings, the writer suggests that using positive self talk at the onset of practices or matches could prove to be more effective than attempting to reverse negative self talk.

Based on data analysis, the amount of negative self talk decreased overall, as a result of using positive self talk. This finding supports the intention of developing a more positive dialogue. Furthermore, decreasing negative self talk potentially signifies that participants were successfully implementing the intervention, thereby restructuring their negative thoughts into positive thoughts.

This study provides research on women's experiences in sport and supports the development of applicable theories and constructs for women. This conclusion is supported by various researchers who have suggested that future research focusing on

women in sport is necessary if women are to develop greater equality and status in sport (Borish, 1996; Fairchild, 1994; Halbert, 1997; Lorber & Farrell, 1991; McDermott, 1996; Vertinsky, 1994). This study has further added to the literature on women in sport by providing data on self-confidence with female tennis players. Moreover, prior research has not focused on self talk and women in sport and therefore, this study provides new tools for women in sport. Halbert (1997) indicated that sport provides an opportunity for women to experience empowerment. This study has been a source of empowerment for women in sport, based on the nature of self talk and the potential for self-confidence and performance to increase. Specifically, women can use self talk to feel better about themselves, have greater control over their performance outcomes, and overall support their personal development. Further, this study supports Title IX by assisting women to establish equality in sport through knowledge of their experiences.

The writer concludes that the current study enhances the research on women in sport by utilizing experienced female athletes. Past research has focused on non-athletes performing novel tasks (Feltz 1979). Moreover, the writer concludes that the use of qualitative data analysis with women in sport further strengthens this body of literature. Prior research has utilized quantitative methods of data analysis (Feltz, 1982; Vealey, 1986).

Recommendations for Future Study

Although the current study found increases in both self-confidence and performance, future research could benefit from a longer intervention period. Specifically, extending the intervention period from 30 days to 45 to 60 days could provide participants with additional time to develop a more consistent positive dialogue. After analyzing the data, it was apparent that participants became more confident with implementing positive self talk toward the end of the intervention period. Additionally, participants' effectiveness

with applying the intervention fluctuated, thus they did not appear to develop a stable foundation of positive self talk.

Future implications of this study suggest that employing a larger sample size could provide expanded data in which to draw comparisons. Moreover, studying both men and women in future research would enable the researcher to compare differences between males and females. As well, focusing on gender differences could enhance the current body of literature. Due to the fact that the majority of theories in sport have been developed by and for males, identifying gender differences may validate the need for theories and constructs to be developed for women. Fairchild (1994) and Lorber and Farrell (1991) indicated that current sport research cannot be adequately applied to women because males are used as the norm.

Expanding the current study's design to include a control group and an experimental group could also strengthen the findings. The researcher would be able to make comparisons between the two groups, further supporting the results of the study. Moreover, changing the design of the journal format might prove to be beneficial. Specifically, after analyzing the data, it appeared that certain questions in the journal format were redundant. For example, following the definition of self-confidence, there is a space for negative self talk statements and positive self talk statements. This is repeated in Questions 2 and 3, and could therefore be deleted. As well, Questions 1 and 5 were combined during data analysis because participants were answering the questions in a redundant manner. Both of these questions are seeking to obtain information about changes the participants have experienced with using positive self talk. Consequently, these questions could be combined for further effectiveness. Question 2 asks participants to answer two questions. The first question was left blank more than any other question for all of the journal entries. Thus, separating these two questions could prove to provide more data and clarity for the participants. Expanding the Likert scale for Questions 4 and 6

from 1 to 5 to 1 to 10 may demonstrate better results with these two questions.

Furthermore, expanding the intervention period, as noted, may allow participants more time to integrate the intervention and reflect more consistency with these questions. Future research may also benefit from a question in the journal format addressing the participants rating of his/her amount of negative self talk on a Likert scale. Using a Likert scale, may enable the researcher to make comparisons about the self-confidence rating, performance rating, and the amount of negative self talk. In addition, these scales could be graphed to provide a visual representation of the comparisons.

Specifying and clarifying the instructions to participants during the group interview could also provide greater consistency with participant responses. Participants answered some questions differently than what was intended by the researcher. For example, instead of giving a numerical value for Question 2, one of the participants reported “A lot” or “Few times” rather than “10” or “20.” Furthermore, requesting that participants date each entry and specify whether they were practicing or playing in a match could be helpful. Dating each entry would allow the researcher to make conclusions based on a specific time frame. It would also enable the researcher to know how well the participants adhered to the protocol. Identifying practices and matches could provide informative data about differences between participant stress levels and conditioned responses during these two situations.

Based on data analysis, Participants 1 and 3 reported feelings of anger throughout the journal entries. Thus, incorporating a question about participants’ ability to forgive themselves and re-focus their attention could provide informative data. As well, adding questions to the journal format which focus particularly on diaphragmatic breathing and progressive muscular relaxation could enable the researcher to analyze the effectiveness of this component of the intervention. Participant 2 reported she focused on her breathing and relaxation. However, minimal information was provided, and the other participants did not

indicate their experiences with using progressive muscular relaxation or diaphragmatic breathing. Future research identifying the intervention as a psychological skills training package and focusing on all aspects of the intervention could also be helpful.

Due to minimal existing research focusing on the effects of self talk on self-confidence, future research in this area could enhance this body of knowledge. Keating and Hogg (1995) and Weinberg and Jackson (1990) noted the lack of existing research in this area and the importance of future studies. Moreover, further studies could support the development of a foundational theoretical base in this area.

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Appendix A

Group Format

Hello, and thank you for participating in this study. The purpose of this study is to conduct an in-depth analysis on self talk and self-confidence with female tennis players. This will be accomplished by utilizing the self talk intervention for one month, recording your experiences in a journal following a structured format. The journal responses will be analyzed to determine the effects of self talk on self-confidence in sport.

I would like to ask each of you to complete an informed consent which outlines the expectations of the study and your rights.

Are there any questions?

For the purpose of this study, self talk refers to the thoughts and verbal self-statements you have and may say to yourself during practices and competitive matches. Positive self talk refers to the positive statements and/or thoughts that you say to yourself. Negative self talk refers to the negative self-statements and/or thoughts that you say to yourself. Research has found that these statements and thoughts, whether positive or negative, can affect performance (Van Raalte et al., 1992; Van Raalte et al., 1994; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990).

Has everyone heard of self talk?

Do each one of you experience negative self talk?

Positive self-statements have been associated with more successful performances, and negative self statements have been associated with less successful performances. Positive self talk has been found to be the most frequently used psychological intervention by coaches and athletes (Van Raalte et al., 1992; Van Raalte et al., 1994; Weinberg & Jackson, 1990). Therefore, monitoring and learning how to change negative self talk into positive self talk can be very beneficial to performance outcomes.

Countering is a technique used with self talk intervention in which negative self-statements are changed into positive self-statements. Applying self talk requires an individual to notice each time he/she experiences negative self talk, takes a breath, and counters it with positive self talk. Breathing clears the mind and relaxes the body. During a 20-minute intervention, each of you will counter two negative self-statements with positive self-statements.

Are there any questions about self talk or the expectations of the study?

I would like to set up appointments to meet with each of you for 20 minutes within the next 2 days.

Thanks, and I'll see each of you at your interview.

Appendix B

Agreement to Participate in Research

Responsible Investigator: _____

Title of Protocol: _____

1. I have been asked to participate in a research study investigating an in-depth analysis of the effects of self talk on self-confidence with female athletes.
2. I will be asked to meet with the researcher at the University of California, Berkeley tennis office to participate in a 20-minute interview scheduled with the researcher to learn the self talk intervention. I will be asked to complete a journal following a structured format given to me by the researcher for one month, following each practice and game situation. I will be asked to participate in a group meeting to turn in my journal. I will participate in a 30-minute group meeting following data analysis to review the interpretations of the findings.
3. No risks or discomfort are anticipated to occur.
4. I may benefit from the research, resulting in increases in self-confidence, increases in performance outcomes, knowledge, and practice of a psychological intervention, and contribution to the body of literature in sport psychology.
5. The results of the study may be published, but no information that could specifically identify me will be included.
6. Questions about the research may be addressed to Hilary Stokes, (650) 355-5060, or Dr. Furst, Thesis Advisor, (408) 924-3039. Complaints about the research may be presented to Dr. Bryant, Department Chair, (408) 924-3010. Questions or complaints about research, subjects' rights, or research-related injury may be presented to Serena

Stanford, Ph.D., Associate Academic Vice President for Graduate Studies and Research at (408) 924-2480.

7. No service of any kind, to which I am otherwise entitled, will be lost or jeopardized if I choose to "not participate" in the study.

8. Consent is given voluntarily. I may refuse to participate in the study or any part of the study. If I decide to participate in the study, I am free to withdraw at any time without prejudice to my relationships with San Jose State University or any other participating institutions.

9. I will receive a signed and dated copy of the consent form.

My signature as a subject on this document indicates agreement to participate in the study.

The signature of the researcher on this document indicates agreement to include the above named subject in the research and attestation that the subject has been fully informed of his/her rights.

Subject's Signature

Date

Investigator's Signature

Date

Appendix C

Interview Format

Hello, and thank you for participating in this study. In the next 20 minutes, I will be asking you to select two negative self-statements that you use frequently while playing tennis. Together, we will develop positive self-statements that you feel will work for you, to counter the negative self statements. You will write the positive self-statements in the journal that I have here to give to you. The journal is a tool to assist you to monitor your process with using self talk, to reflect on your experiences, and to keep an accurate written account of your experiences during the next month. The journal is to be completed after each practice and each competitive match for the next month. I will also be calling you once a week during the next month to check on your progress and answer any questions you may have regarding the use of self talk.

As I discussed in the group meeting, self talk is a cognitive intervention used frequently by coaches and athletes to increase performance. Utilizing self talk to enhance performance involves countering negative self-statements with positive self-statements.

Select the two negative self-statements that you use most often while playing tennis.

How often would you say that you use these?

In what context do they usually show up for you?

How do they typically affect your self-confidence?

How do they usually affect your performance?

Some examples of positive self-statements that are appropriate to counter with are,

"Focus," "You can do it," and "Relax."

What are positive self-statements that would counter your negative self-statements?

I can help you select these. However, it works best if you choose something that you think will work for you.

Each time you experience the negative self-statements, you are to take a breath, tighten, and then release your shoulder muscles or forearm and hand muscles and counter the negative statements with the positive self-statements. The breath and muscle tightening will assist you to relax and re-focus your attention. I would like you to practice this a couple of times right now to make sure you understand the process. So go ahead and say a typical negative self-statement, then take a breath, tighten your shoulder or forearm and hand muscles, and say a positive self-statement.

If you experience additional negative self-statements you can choose to counter them with positive self-statements as well. The goal is to develop a stronger positive dialogue with yourself and practice is an important part of this. You may notice immediate results and it may take a few times to effectively counter your negative self-statements and decrease the effect they may have on your self-confidence and performance.

Write the two positive self-statements you selected on the first page of your journal.

Write in your journal after each practice and each competitive match following the structured format.

I will be calling you once a week for the next month to check on your progress and answer any questions.

Is there a good time I can reach you each week?

Do you have any questions at this time?

During our last phone conversation, I will set up a time to meet with you and the rest of the group to collect your journals. If you have any questions or problems, you can call me.

My number is in the front of your journal.

Thank you for your time, and good luck.

Appendix D

Journal Format

Hilary Stokes (650) 355-5060

Complete journal entries after each practice and each competitive game for one month,
February, 13 1998 to March 13, 1998.

Self-confidence is defined as "the belief or degree of certainty individuals possess about
ability to be successful in sport" (Vealey, 1986, p. 222).

Negative self talk:

Positive self talk:

1. What have you noticed (e.g., thoughts, feelings, experiences) with using positive self
talk? Please give two examples.
 - 1.
 - 2.
2. How many times (approximately) during your practice/game, have you experienced
your negative self talk? Please give two examples of your negative self talk.
 - 1.
 - 2.

3. Write positive self-statements countering two of your negative self-statements.

4. How would you rate your current practice/game performance?

Below Average		Average		Above Average	
1	2	3	4	5	

5. Have you noticed any changes in your role as an athlete, since you have been using positive self talk? Please explain in two or more sentences.

6. Rate your current level of self-confidence.

Below Average		Average		Above Average	
1	2	3	4	5	

7. Please give two examples of your current level of self-confidence.

1.

2.

Appendix E

Telephone Call Format

Are you experiencing any difficulties with using self talk?

Have you been recording in your journals after each practice and competitive match?

Do you have any questions for me?

Appendix F

Raw Data for Participants 1, 2, and 3

Participant 1

Questions 1 and 5. What have you noticed (e.g., thoughts, feelings, experiences) with using positive self talk? Please give two examples.

Have you noticed any changes in your role as an athlete, since you have been using positive self talk? Please explain in two or more sentences.

The following are direct quotes taken from each participant's journal entries.

1. Keeps me calm. Helps me focus on present, not past.
2. Keeps my head up. Shoulders back. Yes, I am confident with my game. It helps me to think in the present, not the past.
3. Walk confidently. Don't think about mistakes. I'm starting to feel better every time I use positive self talk, but I still forget to use it.
4. Felt relaxed last match, but really tense today. Sometimes it's too hard to resist negative talk, especially when you need to win. Sometimes I just can't help saying bad things. I get too angry at myself.
5. It's easy to use when I'm really focused, but difficult to use when my concentration is off. Use positive self talk = win. I need to have more consistent practices and matches. One day I'm on, the next day I'm off.
6. Sometimes it's really hard to get me out of a bad mood even with positive self talk. I can start off really well and positive, but slowly turn negative.
7. My doubles partner is a good source for positive self talk. Keeps me motivated. When I focus before each point and tell myself something or anything positive, I play better than when I stay mad.

8. I play better. Don't react to missed shots as much.
9. Feel better, not as sluggish. Depends on my mood when it can be helpful. If I start off practice/match with positive self talk, it's very helpful. But when I don't start off with it, it's very hard to be positive in the middle of practice/match.
10. It's better when I don't think about my tennis and focus on movement. I look more confident because I feel more confident on the court.
11. It really does work if it's used correctly. I can focus on my tennis rather than working on getting my mind back into it. It has become easier to use positive self talk. It's not such a huge effort anymore.
12. I play better when I say things in my head, not out loud. Attitudes are contagious. It's hard to stay positive when you know you should be beating your opponent; it's easier to be negative.
13. I have the hardest time using positive self talk when I'm losing. It helps me a lot when I'm winning. I noticed that my confidence has been more consistent and not so erratic. I'm now confident that I have the ability to beat anyone.
14. When I say something out loud, it's usually negative. When I keep quiet, I play better. I wasn't pleased with my performance today, but I was still able to take something positive out of it.
15. I feel better when I use positive self talk on the court. I used to get really angry very easily, but now I am a little calmer. I had probably the best practice of the semester today. I played hard, got really into it, and stayed positive.

Question 2. How many times (approximately) during your practice/game, have you experienced your negative self talk? Please give two examples of your negative self talk.

1. Ten to 12 times during practice. "Retard," "Can't."

2. Blank for number of times experiencing negative self talk. "You're so good!," "Why can't I hit it?"
3. Five to six times during match. "That's pathetic," "Oh, my God".
4. Ten to 12 times during match (bang racket), "I'm not any good," "You really fucked up."
5. Two to three times during practice. "Get the ball you lazy ass," "Hit, you wuss."
6. Seven to eight times during practice. "You suck," "You're so bad."
7. Three times during match. "Can't you hit it?," "That was bad."
8. Two times during match. "Don't do that."
9. Blank for number of times experiencing negative self talk. "Oh, my God, that's horrible," "You're just so bad."
10. Two times during match. "I can't believe you missed that!"
11. Three times during practice. "You're so special!," "Only you would try that!"
12. Seven to eight times during practice. "Nice try!" (sarcastically), "This is so bad."
13. One time during match. "So slow!"
14. Blank for number of times experiencing negative self talk. "Move your fat ass," "You're so lazy."
15. Blank for number of times experiencing negative self talk. "You reject!," "I'm so special!"

Question 3. Write positive self-statements countering two of your negative self-statements.

1. "Come on," "I can."
2. "Don't worry," "Next one."
3. "It's alright," "That's okay."
4. (hold on to racket) "I am good," "Focus on next point."

5. "Keep moving your feet," "Hit out on the ball."
6. "C'mon and play," "Next one."
7. "This one," "Just step in and move forward."
8. "Focus on the next point."
9. "You are good," "That's okay, next one."
10. "I'll make the next one."
11. "You can make it," "Next one."
12. "Keep it simple," "Focus."
13. "Get there!"
14. "Move forward," "Get there."
15. "Over the net," "You can do this."

Question 4. How would you rate your current practice/game performance on a scale from 1 to 5 in which 1 represents below average and 5 represents above average?

1. 3
2. 4
3. 5
4. 4
5. 4
6. 3
7. 4
8. 4
9. 3
10. 4
11. 4
12. 3

13. 4

14. 3

15. 4

Question 6. Rate your current level of self-confidence on a scale from 1 to 5 in which 1 represents below average and 5 represents above average.

1. 2

2. 4

3. 5

4. 4

5. 4

6. 3

7. 4

8. 5

9. 4

10. 4

11. 5

12. 4

13. 4

14. 3

15. 4

Question 7. Please give two examples of your current level of self-confidence.

1. "Look down, slumped shoulders."

2. "Played well today, won fairly easily."

3. "Won a big match today, so I am riding a high."

4. "Today we lost a close match. I played well, but couldn't hold up under pressure. I feel really bad because I let my teammates down."

5. "I had a good practice today. Hit the ball well and had fun."
6. "I had a bad practice. Started off okay, then I got frustrated."
7. "Today I started slow, but I stayed positive and we won the match."
8. "Played well today." "Stayed aggressive in doubles."
9. Blank.
10. "Walk with good posture, don't look down as much, look ahead."
11. "Hitting cleanly, playing well."
12. Blank.
13. "Hitting through the ball." "Knowing I can play well."
14. "I'm hitting okay, but not putting it together when I play."
15. "Keep a good walking pace." "Hit through every ball/shot."

Participant 2

Questions 1 and 5. What have you noticed (e.g., thoughts, feelings, experiences) with using positive self talk? Please give two examples.

Have you noticed any changes in your role, as an athlete, since you have been using positive self talk? Please explain in two or more sentences.

1. Aware of low intensity, but self talk didn't raise my intensity, focus.
2. Blank.
3. Blank.
4. After saying "come on," ready to play next point instead of thinking about past. Aware of how body image and self talk changed in response to a few bad errors and increased nerves.
5. No negative talk at all. Talk is more positive, not just neutral. Ready for next point.
6. Hard to keep talk positive when really frustrated. Better to release emotion and then be quiet. Self talk tends to make me tight if I use it too much. Sometimes it's better to stay

calm/neutral and think about breathing. Still speak negative under stress of competition.

Brings me down, often lose next point.

7. When intense in practice, talk is positive or non-existent. Must keep making positive corrections to stay in the now. Helpful in practice and I can stay focused and achieve more in the same time.

8. Helps me focus when my mind is drifting. When I start talking negatively, it is harder to stop (If I let myself start).

9. I can be positive and intense without a lot of self talk.

10. Aware when I get negative, but it's still hard to catch it and reverse it.

11. Harder to recall my negative self talk. Talk is less self-directed, more just a release of frustration. Today I started well, got negative, and then reversed it.

12. Was really intense, hard workout, no self talk at all.

Question 2. How many times (approximately) during your practice/game, have you experienced your negative self talk? Please give two examples of your negative self talk.

1. Fifteen times. "I couldn't be bothered," "I'm so slow."

2. Fifteen times. "I'm so slow/out of shape," "I've never shanked so many serves."

3. Five times during match. "God," "That's one of the worst games."

4. Ten times during match. "So tight," "Pushing the ball."

5. One to two times during match. "God."

6. Thirty times during match. "My serve is so bad," "I'm so inconsistent."

7. Five times during practice. "Can't hit this volley," "So flat."

8. Fifteen times during practice. "I hate this drill." "That is pathetic."

9. Zero times during practice.

10. Ten times during practice. "Such a push," Curse/swear.

11. Fifteen times during match. "What is that?," "How bad is that?"
12. Zero times during practice.

Question 3. Write positive self-statements countering two of your negative self-statements.

1. "Be intense," "Move your feet," "Let's go."
2. "Stay on your toes," "Watch the ball," "Quick feet."
3. "Keep concentration on game points."
4. "Breathe," "Relax," "Watch the ball," "C'mon this point."
5. "C'mon," "Let's Go," "I really want this game."
6. "Relax and hit it," "Be patient, play percentages," "Way to play," "Right here."
7. "You can do it," "Get there."
8. "Focus," "You can do it."
9. "Move your feet."
10. "C'mon, this point," "Get into net," "Silence."
11. "Yeh," "Shot," "Dominate," "Control the points," "Be aggressive."
12. Blank.

Question 4. How would you rate your current practice/game performance on a scale from 1 to 5 in which 1 represents below average and 5 represents above average?

1. 1
2. 3
3. 4
4. 3
5. 3
6. 3
7. 5

- 8. 2
- 9. 5
- 10. 3
- 11. 4
- 12. 5

Question 6. Rate your current level of self-confidence on a scale from 1 to 5 in which 1 represents below average and 5 represents above average.

- 1. 2
- 2. 3
- 3. 3
- 4. 4
- 5. 3
- 6. 3
- 7. 3
- 8. 3
- 9. 5
- 10. 4
- 11. 5
- 12. 5

- Question 7. Please give two examples of your current level of self-confidence.
- 1. Movement can be better, unforced errors, faster surface.
 - 2. Improved from beginning to end of practice. Positive body image throughout match.
 - 3. Confidence to come back after losing concentration. Good emotional control and determination.
 - 4. First match where tension has been there for a long time, played through.

5. Pumping myself up more. Frustrated because get tight.
6. Feel quite good even though I put myself down on court. Know I can improve a lot, good match.
7. Motivated to control frustration and destructive self talk. Motivated to improve game after losing match.
8. Match playing is improving and so is confidence. Still know can work harder and play better.
9. Felt good on court. Confidence much better after a lot of matches.
10. Finished match very well.
11. Created intensity when needed to. Negative talk made match much closer than it should have been.
12. Worked very hard. Felt good about self after practice.

Participant 3

Questions 1 and 5. What have you noticed (e.g., thoughts, feelings, experiences) with using positive self talk? Please give two examples.

Have you noticed any changes in your role as an athlete, since you have been using positive self talk? Please explain in two or more sentences.

1. I use it, but there is still fear in the back of my mind. Even in warm-up, before a match, I talk positively, but in the back of my mind, there's doubt. During a match, there's the same feeling. No changes because the bad keeps outweighing the good, and I feel that I'm fooling myself.
2. Pretty much the same as yesterday, except during my match, I focused a lot harder and didn't let the bad shots get to me. I think I did this by focusing on each point and the importance of winning the match. More focused this time. In my previous match, I let outside things get to me. This time, I focused solely on the match.

3. Very positive this time in doubles. Told myself positive things. The match was so important that I didn't have time to think negative things. Very different from my singles match 30 minutes before. Within 30 minutes after singles, I felt like a different player. Doubles I felt very confident, I automatically thought positive thoughts, and actually believed them. Perhaps on my first service game, I doubted myself.

4. Same fear as before of not playing as well as before, even in practice. Positive talk still not outweighing fear thoughts.

5. Starting to hit the ball better and cleaner, just telling myself I can do it. Hit basket of balls, 200 balls, with positive thoughts and felt good. I was happy with the way I practiced, so I was a happier person.

6. Kept me in the first set, I was competitive. I am starting to believe it a little more. Didn't feel good today on court, let my mind go.

7. In doubles, I am confident. I have to keep my partner positive so I automatically am. Easy to be positive with someone else because you help each other. More confident, comfortable.

8. Keeps me eager. Positive thoughts starting to keep me moving. Hard if I miss a shot I'm eager and want to play the next ball.

9. Felt good at the start.

10. Think about partner more than myself; don't think much about myself. Very positive and enjoying playing. I hit shots easily that I would think twice about in my singles. Confident on court, feel good about myself off the court, happy.

11. Kept me in the match even when she was down; I kept positive and that mental strength won me the second set. When I use it, it's effective. However, my mind still wanders when I use it and I am still unsure about my game.

12. Walk on the court more positive, and bigger belief in myself. Belief and positiveness in doubles. When I first played with my partner, I was uncertain, but now we blend well and stay positive.

13. Blank.

14. Felt good today. Took control of my practice and worked on what I wanted to. Result was good positive self talk and good results. Told coach exactly what drills I wanted to do and what to work on. Today I was very happy with my practice, I was focused and wanted to improve. My positive self talk was probably the best it's been in weeks. Was happier off the court too; playing well made me happy.

15. Happier today because I kept myself positive during the drills and entire practice. Didn't worry about my game today; just tried to enjoy myself. More confident on the court today with hitting my shots results was happier off the court.

Question 2. How many times (approximately) during your practice/game, have you experienced your negative self talk? Please give two examples of your negative self talk.

1. Blank entry for number of times experienced negative self talk (practice). Not exactly negative, perhaps when I hit a bad shot, I acknowledged that it's bad. During practice and match, I have been worried about my play, and I find that the talk doesn't outweigh the negative of fearful thoughts.

2. Only a couple of times during my match, but I got them out of my head straight away. In the second set, which I lost, I found myself thinking that "Here I go again, back to the bad play I have been playing."

3. No negative self talk this time (match). Had to keep my partner positive and focused so there wasn't time to think negatively. Only bad thing was the fear if we could lose.

4. A lot, every time I hit a bad shot I think (practice) "I'm not playing well," "I'm not hitting the ball clean."

5. Not in this practice.
6. Blank entry for number of times experienced negative self talk (match). In the second set, I became negative because I was losing, and I felt my thoughts drift in and out to other things. Makes me lose concentration. I thought about other matches, etc.
7. Blank entry for number of times experienced negative self talk (match). On returns,, if I miss one, it's negative, but more frustration. Like "You don't miss returns!" Otherwise, fairly positive.
8. Blank entry for number of times experienced negative self talk (practice). Even if I'm not negative in thinking, it shows in the way I hit the ball. I'm not completely hitting my stroke right. Maybe not positioning or putting my feet in the right position.
9. Blank entry for number of times experienced negative self talk (match). At the end, I felt negative. Just keep wondering why I was playing badly and when it would get better.
10. Didn't (match).
11. Blank entry for number of times experienced negative self talk (match). I experienced it especially in the third game when my thoughts began to drift. Began to get nervous and it took over my mind too much. Also, slice my backhand because I was being negative on topspin shot.
12. More negative than usual because it rained, so we went indoors, which was really fast (match). My partner was injured, so I put extra pressure on myself, and little things seemed to get me angry which doesn't usually happen in doubles.
13. A lot (practice). Started getting angry at everything, coaches, practice, drills, situations
14. Not many times (practice). Just got annoyed when I make mistakes. I sometimes would say to myself that I would never of used to miss that.
15. Only a few times when I would miss easy shots, but I would quickly get back on track with positive thoughts and just thinking about having fun (practice).

Question 3. Write positive self-statements countering two of your negative self-statements.

1. "I believe in myself," "I will focus on the next point."
2. To counter this I made sure I played harder and told myself, "This is the new beginning." It settled me down some.
3. Blank.
4. "I can do this," "Just watch the ball," "Move your feet."
5. Blank.
6. I will focus in and out of points.
7. Blank.
8. "Focus," "Move my feet," "Prepare early."
9. Blank.
10. Blank.
11. "Next point," "I can do it."
12. "Just focus on the points."
13. Blank.
14. "Each ball I'll get better."
15. "Next shot."

Question 4. How would you rate your current practice/game performance on a scale from 1 to 5 in which 1 represents below average and 5 represents above average?

1. 1
2. 2
3. 4
4. 2
5. 3

6. 3

7. 4

8. 3

9. 2

10. 4

11. 4

12. 3

13. 1

14. 4

15. 4

Question 6. Rate your current level of self-confidence on a scale from 1 to 5 in which 1 was below average and 5 was above average.

1. 1

2. 2

3. 4

4. 2

5. 3

6. 3

7. 4

8. 3

9. 2

10. 4/5

11. 4

12. 3/4

13. 1

14. Blank.

15. 4

Question 7. Please give two examples of your current level of self-confidence.

1. "Not hitting clean shots," "Standing back from baseline."
2. "Still not hitting clean shots." "Fear to hit ball completely all of the time."
3. "Felt in control." Felt I was playing well."
4. Blank.
5. "Felt relieved after each ball I hit better," "Felt more confident for next match."
6. "Hit ball better during points," Went for more than I had in Wisconsin last week."
7. "Confident stepping on the court," "Comfortable hitting shots."
8. Blank.
9. "Not going for shots."
10. "Comfortable being on the court" , "Not worried about how I am playing at all and know they are going to win.
11. "Feeling good, I move well and am in position." When I am not I am slower to move and position."
12. "Hitting confident shots and comfortable."
13. Blank.
14. "Hit ball solidly and hit some good shots. Felt good practicing and playing."
15. "Strokes better, better technique, more confident and comfortable."

Appendix G

Reflexive Journal

1. Meeting with Dr. Furst regarding chapters 1,2 and 3.

Review APA format for referencing in text and in bibliography.

Include Deborah Feltz research on self efficacy in sport.

No need for assumptions.

Definitions list numerically.

No #'s on first page of each chapter.

Literature Review

State that the following subject areas will be covered, self confidence, self efficacy ect...

Tell the reader in a brief paragraph what going to be covering.

Discuss them in the same order.

Use subheadings to set sections apart and lead in sentences and conclusive statements.

Go from general to specific and do each section chronologically.

Instrumentation

Procedures

Check up with subjects one time a week.

Analysis of Data

Expand on how going to analyze the data.

Include women in sport and gender differences in chapter two.

2. Meeting with Dr. Furst regarding women in sport and gender differences.

Include brief section regarding women and gender in chapter one and more expanded in chapter two.

Clean up APA errors.

3. Meeting with Dr. Conry regarding chapters 1, 2, and 3.

Focus on what has been done and what I am going to do differently in my thesis.

Define self confidence and self efficacy.

Make sure to cite.

4. Meeting with Dr. Conry regarding chapter 3.

Instrumentation

Discuss journal because it yields the most information.

Procedures

Subjects who engage in negative self talk, will be selected by the coach and if subjects don't engage in negative self talk they will be eliminated from the study and another subject selected.

Know the exact protocol for the interview, group meeting and telephone conversation.

Journal format

Make questions requiring a rating on a Likert scale.

Put self confidence in question 6.

Define self confidence at the beginning of the journal.

Develop a journal for the participants.

Need a peer debriefer and an auditor.

Triangulation

Demonstrate which authors supported some of the main sections. List authors for each section and summarize in a sentence.

Include research on journal writing.

Shorten chapter 1.

Put all meetings regarding thesis in a reflexive journal.

Discuss relaxation techniques, breathing and progressive muscular relaxation.

5. Meeting with Dr. Furst regarding proposal meeting.

Chapter 1 and 3 should be 15 to 20 minutes

Use overheads.

Don't read off anything except overheads.

Focus on why using qualitative.

Chapter 1 approximately half and chapter 3 approximately half (or a little more).

Make sure chapter 3 is reviewed in detail.

State in beginning of meeting that need a peer debriefer and auditor.

Try Kris Vantomhout and Dr. Bryant.

Include cover page and table of contents when give copies of thesis to committee members.

6. Notes from proposal meeting with Dr. Furst, Dr. Conry and Dr. Wughalter

Get auditor and peer debriefer.

Feltz 1979 is missing from the reference list and so is Lincoln and Guba.

Delete the "effect" out of the title/purpose. Title needs to be shorter.

Put tennis in title.

Plot each subject's responses to questions 4 and 6 each day over the month.

The athlete's journal must give them an opportunity to express themselves.

Limitation is the students' ability to accurately reflect/express themselves.

Why is data rich? Because it is the individual's experiences and it allows them to share their world.

Shorten methods section to focus it.

Define difference between self efficacy and self confidence.

Discuss diaphragmatic breathing and progressive muscular relaxation.

Over winter break make changes.

7. Meeting with Dr. Furst regarding IRB

Add in that I am an MSW with 3,000 supervised hours of clinical experience.

Bold questions and separate with lines.

Identify that the participants the coach selects, will be asked to volunteer.

8. Meeting with Kris Vantornhout, peer debriefer, regarding chapters 1,2, and 3.

Discussed clarity of chapters.

Discussed flow of chapters and content.

Reviewed the procedures.

Discussed the current status of data collection.

Kris concluded that there was fluidity and consistency with Chapters 1, 2, and 3.

9. Meeting with Dr. Conry regarding data analysis.

Put questions into categories to analyze.

i.e. changes due to positive self talk, negative self talk, positive self talk, performance, and self confidence.

Look for patterns within each category.

Put all data on a large piece of paper and analyze.

Chapters 2 and 5 should have connections regarding what was found and what other research has found.

Identify how many times met with Kris Vantornhout.

Tell a story about each participant in chapter 4 with the summary.

10. Meeting with Dr. Conry regarding chapters 4 and 5.

Discuss what I found and why I think I found it.

Link the results with research from previous studies.

Discuss the results as a group.

Member check by asking subjects to clarify researcher's interpretations over the phone.

Identify the peer debriefer as assisting the researcher to identify biases and to clarify the interpretations of results.

11. Phone meeting with Kris Vantornhout regarding data collection.

Discuss procedures of data collection.

Discuss follow up phone calls to participants.

Review timeline for collecting data and writing chapters 4 and 5.

Kris suggested that it may be difficult to write Chapters 4 and 5 prior to April 13, 1998.

Kris suggested that the researcher phone the participants two times in the final week of data collection to remind them to bring their journals for the researcher to collect.

12. Phone meeting with Kris Vantornhout regarding data analysis.

Discuss data analysis procedures.

Clarify researchers interpretations of participant responses.

Discuss effective ways for writing up data analysis.

Kris suggested that the researcher analyze the data participant by participant and then focus on all three participants.

13. Phone meeting with Kris Vantornhout regarding chapters 4 and 5.

Discuss flow of chapters 4 and 5.

Discuss clarity of content.

Kris concluded that Chapters 4 and 5 were fluid and comprehensible.

14. Phone meeting with Dr. Conry

Discussion of Data/Results

Summarize their responses for each question/category and put raw data in the appendix.

What does it all mean? Discussion

Put quotes around examples directly from participants.

Discuss some responses according to beginning, middle and end of the journal input.

Summarize all three subjects at the end.

Tell reader that combined questions 1 and 5 because it was redundant.

Tell reader the range for questions with numerical values.

Identify how many entries each participant responded to for each question when appropriate.

Bring in other authors at the end demonstrating audit trail.

Use a typist if necessary.

15. Meeting with Dr. Furst regarding defense meeting and chapters 4 and 5.

Call committee members to set up defense meeting.

Attempt to contact the participant who has not been returning phone calls or bringing journal to scheduled meetings. Also attempt to call the coach to assist with contacting the participant. If unable to reach, note in chapter 3 the attempts made and circumstances surrounding the issue.

Repeat statement of purpose in chapter 4 and give a brief paragraph of what is included in chapter 4.

16. Phone meeting with Dr. Conry regarding conclusions.

Discuss appropriate ways to phrase conclusions.

Talk about my study first then identify what other researchers have done.

Discuss how conclusions support the literature.

Concluding insights.

17. Meeting with Dr. Conry regarding chapters 3, 4 and 5.

Put everything in chapter 3 in past tense and all participants data that summarized in past tense.

Identify recommendations for further study.

Note how my conclusions specifically support other researchers theories or studies.

Review conclusions for grammar errors.

In appendix note that these are participants' exact words.
Identify range for questions 4 and 7.

18. Meeting with Dr. Furst regarding chapters 4, 5 and defense meeting.

Include copyright page, abstract, acknowledgments page, table of contents and signature page.

Chapter 4 introductory paragraph with contents and purpose. Chapter 5 conclusions and suggestions for future research.

Recommendations for future research should include if I was doing it all over again what would I do differently.

Defense meeting

Briefly review chapters 1 and 3 approximately 5 minutes.

Go over results for 10-15 minutes detailed, discuss future considerations and summarize.

19. Meeting with Kris Vantornhout regarding chapters 4 and 5.

Discuss conclusions and recommendations for further study.

Include conclusions regarding longer intervention period.

Discuss that the study couldn't control for external variables. i.e. coach, fans, players, weather, ect.

Identify that questions 4 and 6 did not seem to reflect participants' feelings/experiences as well as questions 1, 2, 3, 5, and 7.

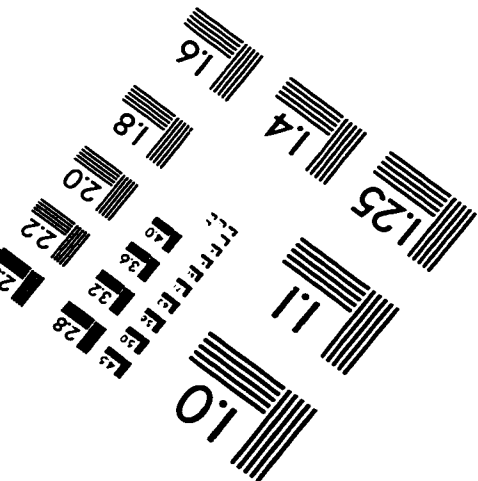
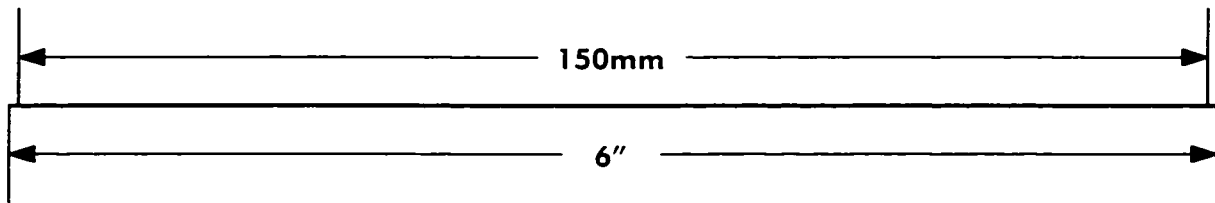
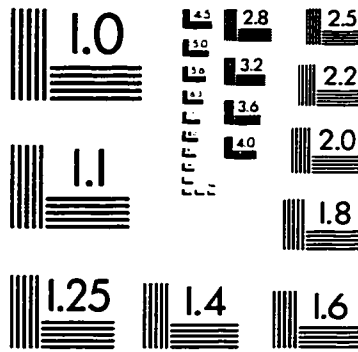
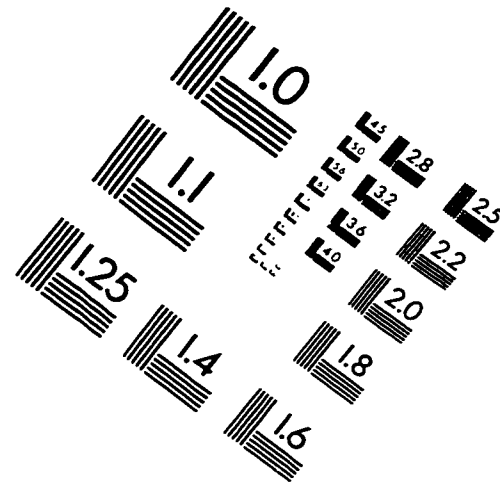
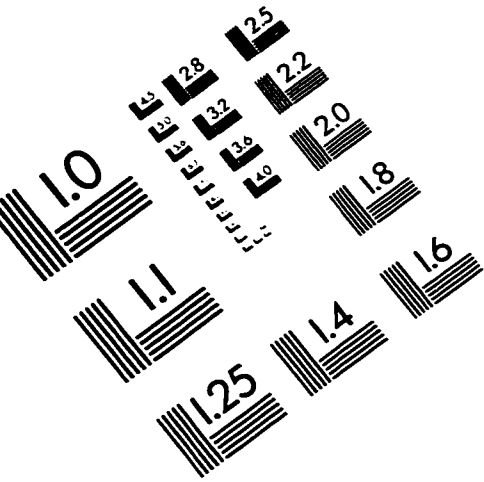
Indicate that a longer intervention period may have reflected differences in responses to questions 4 and 6.

Be certain to address issues that arose for the writer.

These changes have not been implemented yet.

Kris suggested that the researcher identify recommendations for the journal format and emphasize the changes found in self-confidence in the conclusions

IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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